Enterprising Youth:
Sub-Saharan Africa's Uncashed Dividend

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I. Executive Summary

I.1 Policy Question

How should development practitioners design and implement entrepreneurship programs in Sub-Saharan African countries to best generate youth employment?

My client is the Labor Markets Team, Social Protection and Labor Unit of the Human Development Network of the World Bank, Washington D.C. I am supporting their effort to inform new program design and improve the performance of current entrepreneurship programs in the region.

I.2 Background

Nearly one-third of Sub-Saharan Africa's population is between the age group of 10 and 24 years (Devlin, 2013). This is only expected to grow further. However, the region has the fewest number of wage-earners (Monga, 2013). Youth employment is even worse as only about a third of the jobs created in Africa between 2000 and 2008 employed people between the ages of 15 and 24 years (African Economic Outlook, 2013c). The shrinking role of the public sector and the inadequate size of the private sector are the major reasons for the high unemployment rate in Africa.

Low level of skills, lack of information about the job market and cultural and social stigmas further contribute to youth unemployment in Africa. The demand-management policies to promote youth employment have been ineffective. Thus, in the absence of jobs and due to the inefficacy of active labor market policies, entrepreneurship is critical to the future of Africa. However, lack of entrepreneurial training, inaccessibility of finance and markets, inadequate infrastructure, and cultural and political constraints are some of the main barriers to youth entrepreneurship. In light of the growing relevance of self-employment and an increasing inclination of African youth towards pursuing it, addressing the barriers to entrepreneurship is critical to Africa's growth agenda.

I.3 Results of Ex-Post Evaluation Studies of Entrepreneurship Programs

The shortage of wage employment opportunities for Sub-Saharan African youth has led to the emphasis on youth entrepreneurship. As a result, youth entrepreneurship programs offer various interventions including training, financing, mentoring, support, market access and other services to resolve the constraints faced by youth. However, evaluations of these programs have shown that they produce a variety of effects, both positive and negative, that preclude any generalizations. Moreover, the impact studies of such programs are few in number and lack consistency in type, implementation, and the environment of the programs' interventions. Nevertheless, there is considerable evidence that youth entrepreneurship programs have made a valuable contribution to youth employment.

I.4 Data and Methodology

This project focused on a qualitative study of interviews with 11 specialists in the area of entrepreneurship to understand the best practices in the design and implementation of entrepreneurship programs. The qualitative interview instrument had 5 modules which covered 9 topics: target group constraints; program objectives; targeting of programs; program components and design; program implementation; monitoring and evaluation; achievements, best practices and potential areas of interest; weaknesses and ineffective approaches; and program effectiveness. The coding and analysis of interviews was done using NVivo qualitative analysis software. The emerging themes from the interviewees were

analyzed in light of the evaluation studies discussed in this paper. The combined study of interviews, review of literature, and case studies was used to draw policy recommendations.

I.5 Policy Recommendations

The paper recommends policy alternatives in three program areas of targeting, design, and implementation.

1. Recommendations for Program Targeting

    1.A Improve targeting of youth by conducting target group and market context assessments and involving local intermediaries.

    1.B Increase attendance and participation of youth by targeting higher-skilled youth and nascent youth enterprises, building accountability mechanisms, spreading awareness about the program, and offering incentives.

2. Recommendations for Program Design

    2.A Enhance program design by taking into consideration local context, realistic objectives, attitudinal shifts towards entrepreneurship, financial sustainability, and capacity of implementers.

    2.B Promote comprehensive programs by including components like training and education, financing, mentoring and support, access to markets, and value chains.

3. Recommendations for Program Implementation

    3.A Improve implementation by involving, training and building capacity of local implementation partners.

    3.B Improve implementation by incorporating monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

II. Policy Question

How should development practitioners design and implement entrepreneurship programs in Sub-Saharan African countries to best generate youth employment?

My client is the Labor Markets Team, Social Protection and Labor Unit of the Human Development Network of the World Bank, Washington D.C. "The World Bank works with countries to design and implement labor regulations and income protection programs that can be extended to a majority of workers without creating distortions that reduce the creation of jobs" (World Bank, 2013d). I am supporting their effort to inform new program design and improve the performance of current entrepreneurship programs in the region.

III. Background

III.1 Youth Employment

Youth employment has become a key economic concern around the world, especially in developing economies with high growth rates of population. The ILO defines unemployed youth as "all persons between the age of 15 and 24 who, during the reference period, were: (a) without work; i.e. had not worked for even one hour in any economic activity (paid employment, self-employment, or unpaid work for a family business or farm); (b) currently available for work; and (c) actively seeking work; i.e. had taken active steps to seek work during a specified recent period (usually the past four weeks)" (ILO, 2013a). The youth unemployment rate is thereby measured as a ratio of the number of unemployed youth to the total youth labor force.

There are 1.2 billion youth in the world who account for 17% of the total population of the planet (WEF[1], 2013). In simple terms, almost 1 in 5 people is classified as youth (ILO, 2012). 87% of these live in developing countries (WEF, 2013). Not only do the youth account for 40% of the total unemployed population (WEF, 2013), but also their global unemployment rate is 12.6% which is almost thrice the adult unemployment rate (WEF, 2013). South Asia, the Middle East and Africa account for almost 50% of the world's youth population; at the same time, they also have the highest share of unemployed youth and informal sector[2] employment (The Economist, 2013).

Moreover, in 2010, 357.7 million youth were classified as NEET[3] (Neither in Employment, Education or Training) (WEF, 2013). This number is growing. An additional 536 million youth in developing countries were classified as underemployed in 2010 (WEF, 2013). Not only are hundreds of millions of youth unemployed, but also hundreds of millions more work in jobs that are insufficient to meet their needs. One estimate suggests that the economic loss in 2011 from disengaged young people in Europe amounted to $153 billion, or more than 1% of GDP (The Economist, 2013). As Europe is one of the less populous regions of the world and without any demographic dividend[4], it is only a precursor for the looming world crisis of youth unemployment and the huge economic and social costs it poses to global society.

[1] WEF refers to World Economic Forum.
[2] The informal sector "refers to activities and income that are partially or fully outside government regulation, taxation, and observation" (World Bank, 2013g).
[3] The NEET population "is made of persons above a specified age who are not employed, not enrolled in education or in vocational training" (Assaad and Levison, 2013). The measure captures youth "who are not investing in their future either by acquiring human capital through education or training or by gaining experience on the job" (Assaad and Levison, 2013).
[4] Demographic dividend refers to "the accelerated economic growth that may result from a decline in a country's mortality and fertility and the subsequent change in the age structure of the population" (Population Reference Bureau, 2012).

III.2 Causes of Youth Unemployment

Factors such as high population growth rates without a simultaneous rise in the number of jobs available contribute to these high statistics for youth unemployment and underemployment. Since the educational curriculum in many developing countries does not tailor to the practical needs of the job market, the resulting mismatch in skills discriminates against the youth compared to adults. This bias is based on the perception of adults as being better workers due to their greater work experience. Due to a lack of skills and the temporary nature of many job contracts, nearly 50% of the world's youth are "either outside the formal economy or contributing less productively than they could" (The Economist, 2013). Furthermore, the 2008 economic crisis affected developing countries by diminishing their trade and tourism earnings (Berman, 2013). According to the World Economic Forum, the youth population is the "first out and the last in"[5] when a country faces an economic recession (ILO, 2012). Before the economic crisis, the number of unemployed youth increased by 100,000 every year, whereas after the crisis it increased by 4 million annually (ILO, 2012). Consequently, the economic crisis severely worsened youth unemployment rates worldwide. In addition, employment demand is changing due to shifts in technologies, vertical integration processes, and increases in existing labor productivity which requires less labor per unit of output.

III.3 Policy Measures for Youth Employment

To stem this crisis of youth unemployment, countries have used passive measures— unemployment insurance and social transfers, reduction of tax wedges and restructuring of wage bargaining institutions to mitigate the adverse symptoms of unemployment. Countries have also implemented active labor market policies to increase access of youth to jobs, especially high-quality jobs, to increase the productivity and earnings of underemployed youth and to encourage youth's social and economic inclusion. These policies have included measures such as general education and training in vocational, technical, and life skills relevant to the needs of the job market. To reduce the skills mismatch faced by the youth, governments and other donor organizations provide wage subsidies to the private sector to encourage them to provide training and apprenticeship opportunities. Such measures help to improve the quality of the labor supply. Public works projects have also been set up to generate employment. Furthermore, measures such as the provision of job search assistance, job counseling, and access to labor market information are used to match workers to jobs in the public and private sectors (World Bank, 2013o).

These active labor market policies, however, have a mixed track record. According to a meta-analysis study of 97 active labor market programs conducted between 1995 and 2007, "subsidized public sector employment programs are relatively ineffective, whereas job search assistance (JSA) programs have generally favorable impacts, especially in the short run. Classroom and on-the-job training programs are not especially favorable in the short-run, but have more positive relative impacts after two years (Card et al., 2009). Most importantly, the study found that "programs for youths are less likely to yield positive impacts than untargeted programs" (Card et al., 2009). This highlights the inefficacy of active labor market policies in improving employment outcomes for youth. Active labor market policies mostly improve skill levels and job awareness. They do not create jobs. As a result, they have not been adequate in addressing the problem of youth unemployment. The growing gap between unemployed youth and available jobs, therefore, requires an increasing emphasis on job creation, not only in terms of supply of jobs, but also with respect to the demand for quality jobs.

Job creation is increasingly being promoted through youth entrepreneurship programs. The latter frequently relies on interventions like technical or vocational training, business and managerial training, financial literacy training, and life skills training; financing support measures like loans, cash, in-kind

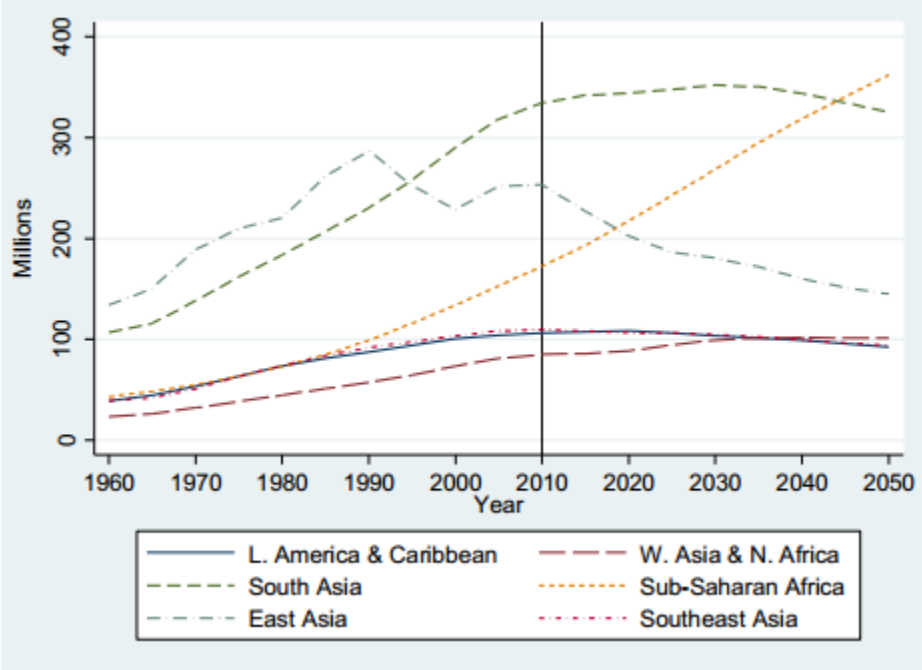
[5] "First out and last in" or "Last in and first out (LIFO)" is an accounting method in which the inventory bought last is sold out first. Similarly, in the context on youth, they are the last to be hired by employers in times of need and the first to be fired in times of distress.

grants, microcredit, microfinance, value chain financing, access to savings arrangements, and other financing options; counseling, mentoring and advisory support; and post-program follow-up services. In developing countries, where labor is either employed in the agricultural sector, self-employed, or informal; there is a pressing need to support entrepreneurs in rural as well as urban areas and to help them overcome barriers related to finance, skills deficit, market access, regulatory environment, business management, lack of start-up toolkits, and infrastructural constraints.

III.4 Sub-Saharan Context

Nowhere are these barriers more acute than in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). The region consists of 48 countries and about 800 million people (Blanke et al., 2013). SSA has a growing youth population contributing to a demographic dividend that will be second only to South Asia in the coming years (Monga, 2013), as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Size of the Youth Population (15-24) by Region (in Millions)



Source: Assaad and Levison, 2013

Nearly one in three people living in SSA i.e. about 297 million people are between the ages of 10 and 24 (Devlin, 2013). According to Population Reference Bureau's *The World's Youth 2013 Data Sheet*, by 2050, that age group is projected to nearly double to about 561 million (Devlin, 2013). The Gallup service's report on 148 countries cited a world unemployment rate of 8% in 2011; however, the unemployment rate reported for SSA was 17% (Marlar, 2012). During the same year, the combined unemployment and underemployment rate for SSA was 49% as compared to the world average of 25% (Monga, 2013). The region has the fewest number of wage-earners in the world (Monga, 2013). According to ILO estimates for the period 2000 to 2007, the working age population in Africa grew by 96 million while the absolute number of jobs grew by only 63 million (African Economic Outlook, 2013b). Consequently, an estimated 10-12 million laborers will enter the African job market each year (African Economic Outlook, 2013b). These statistics only highlight the imperative of increasing youth employment in the continent and especially in the region.

One of the main contributors to Sub-Saharan Africa's high rate of unemployment is the absence of employment opportunities in the formal sector. This has posed many problems in the region. It has given rise to a large informal sector such that nine in ten workers in Africa are employed in the informal sector. This is due to the presence of bureaucratic hurdles and regulatory costs of doing business in the formal sector. Although the informal sector offers livelihood opportunities for women and youth, including small-scale entrepreneurs, most informal sector jobs have low productivity and incomes. In fact, "the value added of a worker in sub-Saharan Africa is 13 times lower than that of a worker in the developed world" (ILO, 2009). As a result of this low productivity and a lack of labor rights, informal sector workers suffer from harsh working conditions, job insecurity, poor incomes, and general poverty (ILO, 2009).

Furthermore, Africa's dependency ratio[6] only decreased from 86% to 80% between 1960 and 2010 (African Economic Outlook, 2013a). In comparison to other regions of the world, this is not a significant decline (African Economic Outlook, 2013a). The result of this is a high dependency burden that "tends to divert resources away from productive activities and slows economic and human development" (African Economic Outlook, 2013a). Lastly, the presence of educated youth without productive employment avenues presents a "potential destabilizing factor" in the region as was witnessed during the Arab Spring in 2011 (Agbor et al., 2012).

III.5 Causes of Youth Unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa

Between 2000 and 2008, only about a third of the 74 million jobs created in Africa were for people ages 15 to 24 (African Economic Outlook, 2013c). Further, the role of the public sector in job creation has been decreasing over the years (African Economic Outlook, 2013b). Gallup World Poll data revealed that African governments employ only about 5% of the African population in the age group 15-29. To maintain this meager percentage until 2025, the increasing population growth would require that African governments create 1.9 million new public sector jobs on an annual basis (African Economic Outlook, 2013b). This seems highly improbable; therefore, the private sector will be crucial to overcoming this challenge. However, the latter's size is still too small to accommodate the current population of the region, let alone the future one. Private sector development in SSA is faced with structural problems, such as "widespread informality, a missing stratum of dynamic medium-sized firms, little upward mobility in the enterprise sector, low levels of inter-firm division of labor and specialization in the value chain, lack of export competitiveness and innovativeness…low technical and entrepreneurial skills as well as lacking access to investment capital and market information" (UNIDO[7], 2008). Overall, the lack of adequate infrastructure, low levels of education and skills, and a rent-seeking and bureaucratic regulatory environment discourage private sector development in SSA (UNIDO, 2008). The shrinking role of the public sector and the inadequate size of the private sector are the major reasons for the high unemployment rate in Africa.

Additionally, African youth suffer from a mismatch between the skills provided by the educational system and those needed by the labor market (UN, 2010-11). This contributes to a lack of labor demand for the youth which is further aggravated by employer discrimination against youth due to the latter's lack of experience. Further, youth also face informational disadvantages related to the job market concerning the types of available opportunities. Cultural factors and social stigmas are another reason for high rates of youth unemployment since vocational training is not perceived well by many African households and educated youth are encouraged to accept only white collar jobs.

[6] Dependency ratio is the ratio of the average dependent population (under 14 years and over 65 years) to the working age population.
[7] UNIDO refers to United Nations Industrial Development Organization

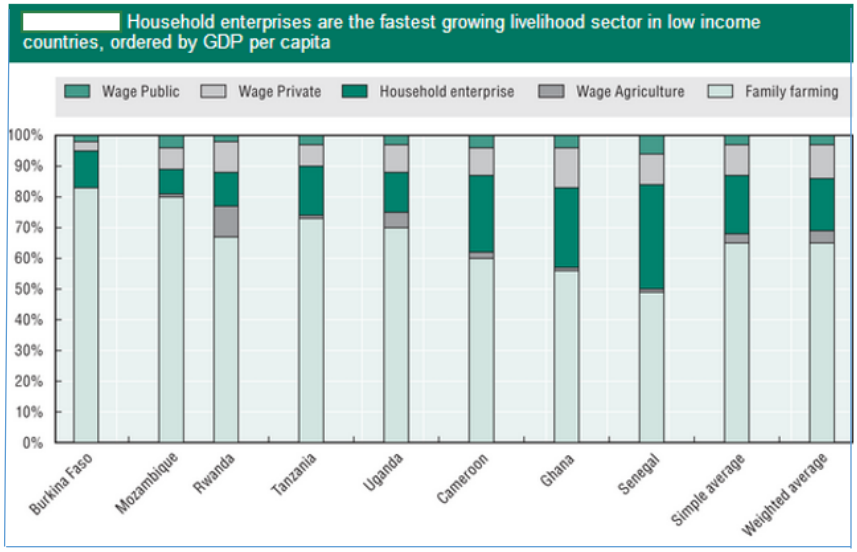
III.6 Policy Measures for Youth Unemployment in Sub-Saharan Africa

Traditional measures to deal with the above-cited barriers and active labor market policies targeted at youth employment in Africa have been ineffective because they are often demand-management policies with misguided aims of trying to ensure development through austere fiscal and financial policies to restore macroeconomic stability (Monga, 2013). Reliance on laissez- faire policies to attract investors does not always work. Many of these policies, though implemented by countries' governments, grew from the recommendations of multilateral organizations and international donors intending to improve the business environment in Sub-Saharan countries. However, advancement of the business environment is a long-term policy goal and is difficult to improve in the short-term. Structural reform in a country requires effective local leadership. External advice alone, although potentially helpful, cannot create reform. Additionally, countries like Singapore and China have advanced economically through well-balanced economic policies that promote a regulatory environment that not only encourages private sector development, but also infrastructural development, industrial growth, urbanization, and employment. Although many countries in the region have achieved sustained high economic growth rates during the last 15 years, there are still obstacles for a more dynamic small and medium size sector to emerge.

III.7 Importance of youth entrepreneurship

Thus, in the absence of jobs and due to the inefficacy of active labor market policies, entrepreneurship is critical to the future of Africa. The World Economic Forum (2009) cited entrepreneurship as "the single largest source of new job growth in both developed and developing countries." According to the World Bank's "Doing Business" Index report, "among the 50 economies with the biggest improvements since 2005, the largest share -a third- are in Sub-Saharan Africa" (The World Bank and IFC, 2013). However, these improvements start from a very low base. Further, the African Economic Outlook states that in Sub-Saharan African countries, "higher country income levels are associated with a growing number of household enterprises and less subsistence farming, rather than a significant increase in wage jobs" (African Economic Outlook, 2013b), as shown in the subsequent Figure 2. The Gallup Poll further estimated that 22% and 24% of the rural youth are self-employed in on-farm and off-farm activities respectively (African Economic Outlook, 2013b).

Figure 2. Growth of various livelihood sectors in low-income sountries of Sub-Saharan Africa

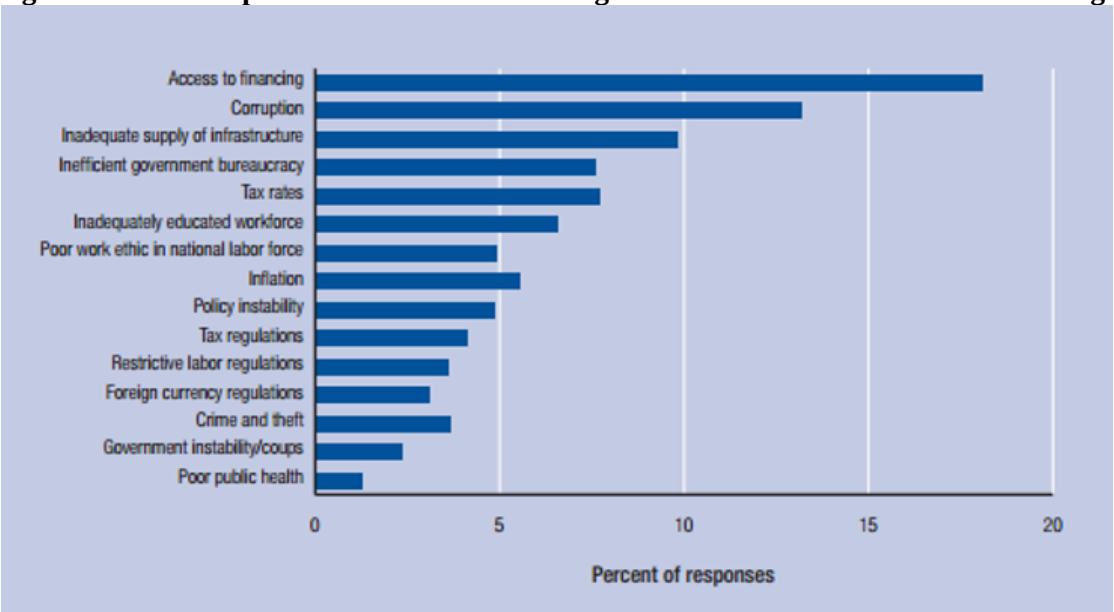


Source: African Economic Outlook, 2013b

III.8 Constraints to Entrepreneurship

Nevertheless, there are many constraints to doing business in Africa as highlighted in Figure 3. 77.7% of Sub-Saharan African youth rely on personal or family funds to start a business (Gale et al., 2013). In fact, the costs of starting a business average 87% of per capita income in SSA (The World Bank and IFC, 2013). Access to finance, therefore, is the biggest barrier to entrepreneurship in SSA as reasserted in Figure 3. This barrier shows the low level of financial and institutional development that could support new entrepreneurs.

Figure 3: The most problematic factors for doing business: Sub-Saharan African Average



Source: Doing Business Report 2013, The World Bank and IFC

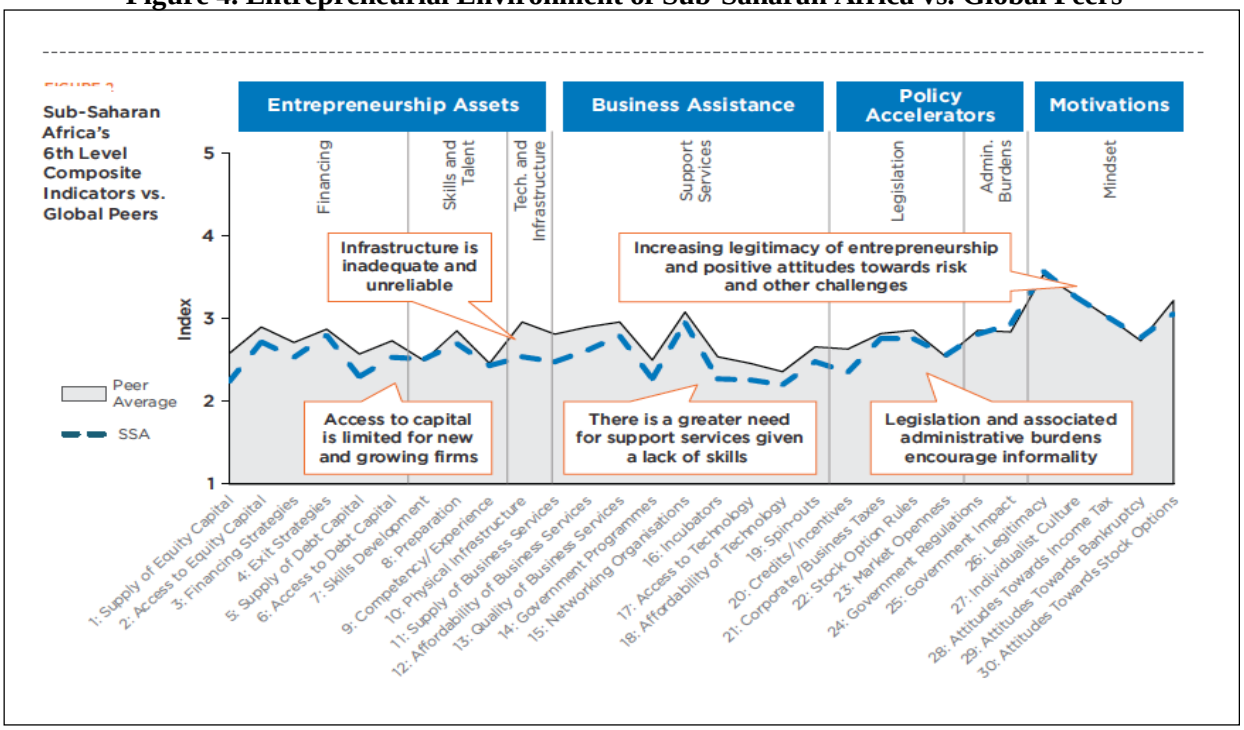
The "Global Competitiveness Index" report of 2012-13 identified access to finance and inadequate supply of infrastructure as some of the biggest areas of concern for enterprises. According to the World Bank Enterprises Survey in the Global Competitiveness report, "26.9 percent of Sub-Saharan enterprises identified transportation and 49.2 percent identified electricity as major constraints for their business in 2009" (Blanke, 2013).

Education is another key constraint facing Sub-Saharan African youth. Youth have low levels of literacy, high drop-out rates in secondary schooling, and low levels of attainment in tertiary education (Gale et al., 2013). The latter not only prevents youth from finding employment, but also from successfully running enterprises. Additionally, one-third of the youth entrepreneurs in SSA start a business without the support of a business-related role model (Gale et al., 2013). In the absence of training or mentoring, these entrepreneurs lack the ability to run sustainable enterprises. Overall, SSA youth identified several other factors such as limited access to secondary and tertiary education, lack of access to markets, high cost of credit, cultural stigmas and constraints, bureaucracy and lack of supportive policy environment, lack of qualified workforce, and limited access to land as barriers to entrepreneurship and self-employment (The World Bank, 2013j).

Additionally, as a result of the political instability in some countries and an unsupportive policy environment, entrepreneurship ends up being a back-up necessity-based career option, rather than an opportunity-driven career choice (Gale et al., 2013).

As demonstrated in Figure 4 below, Sub-Saharan Africa lags behind its global peers in the "entrepreneurship assets" category which includes financing, infrastructure and skills. Despite the presence of these barriers, the graph also indicates a positive mindset of African youth towards entrepreneurship in the "motivations" category. The two categories, a lack of "entrepreneurship assets" and positive "motivations", can be bridged together through the provision of business support services as has been emphasized in the "business assistance" category below. This is especially crucial to overcoming regulatory hurdles and job informality in SSA as reaffirmed by the "policy accelerators" category in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Entrepreneurial Environment of Sub-Saharan Africa vs. Global Peers



Source: Omidyar Network, 2013

In light of the growing relevance of self-employment and an increasing inclination of African youth towards pursuing it, addressing the barriers to entrepreneurship is critical to Africa's growth agenda. However, many of these barriers are structural in nature and, therefore, difficult to change without internal political support. Consequently, this paper shall assume that the entrepreneurial environment is exogenously determined and takes factors like regulatory and investment climate; infrastructural constraints; and socio-cultural factors and entrepreneurial mindsets as constant. The paper focuses on policies that have the potential to improve the situation.

IV. Results of Ex-Post Evaluation Studies of Entrepreneurship Programs

In response to the many challenges to Sub-Saharan Africa's economic development and youth employment in particular, multiple stakeholders including multilateral organizations, donors, NGOs, government agencies, and the private sector have initiated programs targeted at increasing youth entrepreneurship. These programs comprise multiple interventions to provide youth with skills, finance, support, and counseling. These interventions include:

1. Entrepreneurship education or training at secondary or tertiary education levels providing general skills, life or soft skills, vocational skills, business skills, financing skills, ICT[8] skills, or industry-specific skills.
2. Financial support through provision of microcredit, microfinance, business grants (cash or in-kind), government cash transfers (conditional or unconditional), savings accounts, seed capital, SME[9] finance, funding from venture capitalists at lower-cost credit, equity financing or linkages to finance.
3. Support services including advisory services, follow-up support, business development services, supervisory visits, one-on-one mentoring with successful business owners and professionals, monitoring and counseling on fund usage, and encouraging savings behavior in order to use balances as collateral for future loans.
4. Market access and supply chain linkages between existing businesses and youth-led enterprises.
5. Apprenticeships and professional certification programs which in some cases also provide business grants for start-up along with entrepreneurship training and mentoring.
6. Incentive structures in the form of provision of toolkits or a place of work, childcare, meal vouchers, profit-sharing agreements in microenterprise, etc.
7. Infrastructural development including better and affordable access to transport, energy, telecom and other facilities.
8. Other interventions including provision of technologies, value chain linkages, information about inputs, markets etc., insurance; capacity building; gender-specific interventions etc.

The evaluation studies of some of the programs that encompass these interventions revealed variable outcomes. These outcomes have been summarized in table 1 below.

Table 1: Summary of Ex-Post Evaluation Studies of Entrepreneurship Programs[10]

S. No.	Program	Country	Program Intervention(s)/ Component(s)	Target Group	Evaluation Results
1.	North Ugandan Social Action Fund's- Youth Opportunities Program	Uganda	Grants of $382 to purchase skills training and start-up toolkits	Young adults- ages 16-35	• 80% of participants grew business assets • In the fourth year, participants' business assets, work hours and earnings increased by 57%, 17% and 38% respectively
2.	Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents	Uganda	Vocational and life skills training	Adolescent girls	• Likelihood of girls participating in income generating activities, mostly self-employment activities increased by 35% • Benefits > Costs
3.	Economic Empowerment of Adolescent Girls and Young Women	Liberia	6 months of business development skills, life skills and job skills training followed by 6 months of job placement support	Young women	• Employment and earnings of participants increased by 47% and 80% respectively • Average weekly income of participants increased by 115% • Savings of program participants were USD 35 more than non-participants
4.	Venture Capital Trust Fund	Ghana	Low-cost credit to SMEs, seed capital to start-ups, and entrepreneurship development and capacity building programs	SMEs	• Generated 3,500 direct jobs for the farming communities annually • Integrated nearly 8,000 smallholder farmers into the global supply chain of local industries
5.	Experiment: Commitment Savings Accounts	Malawi	Ordinary and Commitment savings accounts, financial education session	Smallholder cash crop farmers	• Land under cultivation, agricultural input use in planting, crop output in subsequent harvest, and household expenditures for farmers with commitment accounts increased by 9.8%, 26.2%, 22.0%, and 17.4% respectively • Benefit to Cost ratio of 3.86

[8] ICT refers to Information and Communication Technology
[9] SME refers to Small and Medium Enterprise
[10] Table 1's source data are described in Appendix A

S. No.	Program	Country	Program Intervention(s)/ Component(s)	Target Group	Evaluation Results
6.	Experiment: Savings Accounts	Kenya	Interest-free formal savings accounts	Poor daily income earners	• Daily productive investment increased by approximately USD 1.6, a 40% rise in average investment 4-6 months post-account opening • 6 months after opening an account private expenditures and average daily food expenditures of women were 37 to 44% higher and 14 to 29% higher than women without accounts respectively
7.	Experiment: Grants	Ghana	Cash and in-kind grants	Micro-enterprises	• For men, in-kind grants were much more effective than cash • For women, both cash and in-kind grants were ineffective
8.	Youth Enterprise Development Fund	Kenya	Loans, business development services and product marketing	Youth enterprises	• Program created 372 new businesses, thereby impacting 1158 individuals in the community • The intervention trained more than 1,200 young people to start, operate, and manage business enterprises within a span of 7 years • Program was cost-ineffective
9.	Program for the Promotion of Children and Youth	Uganda	Skills in development, entrepreneurship, and self-employment	Youth	• Incomes of participants were about 26% higher than those of non-participants
10.	Experiment: PRIDE	Tanzania	Business training and grants	Poor micro-entrepreneurs	• Business training improved business knowledge and adoption of better business practices • Sales of male enterprises increased by 20-30% • Business grants had no impact
11.	Malawi Apprenticeship Program	Malawi	Vocational and entrepreneurship training through apprenticeships under master craftsmen	Youth	• Improved skills and led to better well-being and continued investment in training and human capital development for men • Women did not benefit • Program had a huge opportunity cost for participants since 30% of the training hours were drawn from wage or self-employment hours
12.	Experiment: Training in Industrial Cluster	Ghana	Management training	Micro and small entrepreneurs in an industrial cluster	• Increased the percentage of participants adopting recommended practices by 50% • Private benefit of training was 18 times the training cost in the first year • Impacts on productivity were uncertain
13.	Experiment: Credit Package and Insurance	Malawi	Credit packages to buy seeds with or without weather insurance policy	Farmers	• Take-up of the insured loan was 13 percentage points lower • Take-up of the insured loan was higher among farmers with higher education, income or wealth levels
14.	Adolescent Development Program	Uganda	Social, financial and life skills training and asset transfers	Young women- ages 14-20	• Girls who were more likely to benefit from an entrepreneurship program were more likely to participate
15.	Swiss-South African Co-Operation Initiative	South Africa	Start-up training and business development services	Young entrepreneurs and individual enterprises	• Program was cost-ineffective
16.	NGO Landmine Action Program	Liberia	Skills training and startup packages	High-risk youth	• Led to inconsequential income changes between program participants and non-participants

A detailed account of the evaluations of entrepreneurship programs is provided in Appendix A.

The varied impact of entrepreneurship programs was further confirmed by a World Bank meta-regression study of 37 impact evaluations of entrepreneurship programs from 25 countries across the world,

17% of which were from Africa (Cho and Honorati, 2013). The results indicated that entrepreneurship programs had a positive impact on business knowledge and practice, but did not significantly influence business set-up, business expansion or incomes (Cho and Honorati, 2013). The regression results also indicated that training was more effective in promoting good business practices than financial support (Cho and Honorati, 2013). Yet, a combination of training and financing produced higher impact (Cho and Honorati, 2013). Financing support worked better for women and business training was more effective for existing entrepreneurs (Cho and Honorati, 2013). Lastly, the findings suggested that private sector involvement in delivering such programs could improve overall effectiveness (Cho and Honorati, 2013).

The meta-regression study distilled another area of concern. It cited that improving business knowledge and practice was comparatively easier than setting up businesses and improving incomes (Cho and Honorati, 2013). Moreover, as per the study, "the period between the completion of the program and the end-line survey is positively related to finding positively significant impacts. The interval between the intervention and the end-line survey is much longer for financing than training, and unlike training, a longer interval is associated with higher chances of success, suggesting that it takes time for the use of a loan or grant to emerge as changed outcomes" (Cho and Honorati, 2013).

Determining the programs' effects has proven difficult. Evaluations have shown programs to produce a variety of effects, both positive and negative, that preclude simple categorization. Moreover, the impact studies of such programs are few in number and lack consistency in type, implementation, and the environment of the programs' interventions. Critics would argue that entrepreneurship programs have achieved less success than active labor market policies, the latter having been criticized for their mixed track record. However, this premature conclusion fails to appreciate the relatively new contribution of entrepreneurship programs to the sphere of youth employment and acknowledge the subsequent lack of monitoring and evaluation data. Furthermore, in their brief history, entrepreneurship programs have benefited youth the most as indicated in the meta-regression study (Cho and Honorati, 2013).

Despite ambiguity in project results, there is considerable evidence that youth entrepreneurship programs have made a valuable contribution to youth employment. However, there exists a gap in the knowledge concerning best practices in program design and implementation. This project endeavors to bridge this gap.

V. Data and Methodology

Since more than 40% of the young workers in SSA are unpaid (The World Bank, 2013b), in the absence of other employment opportunities, entrepreneurship is the only hope for the sustainable future of the African youth. Consequently, my paper tried to identify and analyze the challenges and opportunities in the design and implementation of youth entrepreneurship programs to inform potential best practices in the region.

V.1 Methods

This project focused on a qualitative study of interviews with 11 experts in the area of entrepreneurship to understand the best practices in the design and implementation of entrepreneurship and self-employment programs. The objective of the interviews was to understand the constraints and challenges in designing and implementing entrepreneurship programs and to draw lessons for future design and implementation.

Qualitative methods were particularly important due to the lack of rigorous evaluations of past and existing entrepreneurship programs. Moreover, the experiences and challenges faced by project designers and implementers cannot be fully captured in impact evaluation studies.

V.2 Sample

The interviewees were selected using a non-probability purposeful sampling method. They were selected based on their experience in being any of the following: implementer, designer, researcher, faculty, or evaluator of entrepreneurship programs. To incorporate the diversity of organizations working in the field of entrepreneurship programs, interviewees were selected from a wide variety of organizations including international organizations like the World Bank and the ILO, foundations like the International Youth Foundation, non-profits like Youth Business International and ACDI VOCA, educational institutes like Indiana University's School of International Business, and entrepreneurship training centers like the Youth Entrepreneurship Facility.

Regions of operation and years of experience were also taken into consideration as preference was given to people who had worked in developing countries, specifically Sub-Saharan African countries, and those who had at least 10 years of experience in the field of entrepreneurship. The final interviewees were selected from various countries including Zimbabwe, Nigeria, USA, UK, Italy etc. All of them had experience working in developing countries or had worked with people from developing countries.

My supervisor at the World Bank helped me contact 15 interviewees, out of which only 11 agreed to being interviewed. Some of the interviewees were recruited through a snowball sampling method based on referrals of interviewees who refused to be interviewed themselves.

The interviews were conducted between January 15, 2014 and February 15, 2014. All interviews were done by phone or Skype and notes were taken during the interview. On an average, each interview lasted an hour.

V.3 Instrument

The qualitative interview instrument (Appendix B) had 5 modules which covered 9 topics: target group constraints; program objectives; targeting of programs; program components and design; program implementation; monitoring and evaluation; achievements, best practices and potential areas of interest; weaknesses and ineffective approaches; and program effectiveness.

In module 1, I designed questions to get at the effectiveness, objectives, constraints, achievements and weaknesses of entrepreneurship programs.

In module 2, I designed questions to understand the principles, challenges, and recommendations for targeting of programs and definition and selection of beneficiaries.

In module 3, I designed questions to understand the components and challenges of program design and implementation.

In module 4, I designed questions to understand the interviewees' general experience in the field of employment and entrepreneurship including their opinions about the effectiveness of entrepreneurship programs as compared to other active labor market programs, best practices, ineffective approaches, potential areas of interest, and monitoring and evaluation of programs.

In module 5, I designed questions to get at the overall effectiveness of entrepreneurship programs and any additional insights the interviewees may have had.

V.4 Data Coding and Analysis

The coding and analysis of interviews was done using NVivo qualitative analysis software. The data was coded using an inductive thematic analysis technique in which a series of iterative coding was done to look for emergent themes. The interview questions were used to guide the initial process of coding. Additional codes were created based on recurrent themes. These themes were identified based on repetition of words, key words from interview questions, and contrast and comparison of different interviewees' responses to find patterns and recurrent subject content. Subject matter was coded under multiple codes to analyze themes individually and in combination with other themes. To maintain consistency in codes across interviewees, I used a contrast comparison technique in which every time I coded a paragraph with new codes, I would go back and check all the previous paragraphs to check the applicability of that code. This process was repeated across the 11 interviews. A list of the codes used for the analysis is presented in Appendix C.

Post-coding, I analyzed the data based on the frequency of occurrence of words, themes, or codes. I used matrix analysis to create tables and charts to show the frequency of occurrence of themes across interviews as captured by the term 'coding references'. I also used matrix analysis to understand patterns across interviewees' responses and to determine the number of interviewees who spoke about a particular subject or theme as captured by the term 'sources coded'. I created a parent code "Component" only to analyze question 10 of the interview instrument pertaining to components necessary for successful program design. Matrix analysis was used to determine the sources coded for the various program component codes which provided insights into the program components considered necessary by interviewees. The same technique was employed to analyze various other codes and themes.

I also used the NVivo software to understand the various themes surrounding a subject. I created word trees for some of these subjects, wherein the text on the left side of the subject showed themes leading to the subject and the text on the right side of the subject showed themes arising from the subject.

These tables and charts were used to create summary tables highlighting themes in descending order of importance for each of the 9 topics distributed across the 5 modules.

The emerging themes from the interviewees were then analyzed in light of the evaluation studies discussed in the paper. These studies were drawn from various youth employment databases including the World Bank's Youth Employment Inventory, the International Labor Organization's YEN Databank and the Institute for the Study of Labor's database of youth employment programs. I further reviewed tracer studies, program assessment studies, quantitative and qualitative assessments, and other project documents to identify key aspects of entrepreneurship programs and compared and contrasted them with the results of the qualitative analysis. The combined study of interviews, review of literature, and case studies was used to draw policy recommendations.

VI. Analysis

The analysis will detail the responses of the 11 interviewees and identify and analyze emergent themes from the interviews. A list of the interviewees is provided in Appendix D.

Ten of the eleven interviewees had worked in Sub-Saharan African countries and all of them had experience working with people from developing countries. The average years of experience of the

interviewees was over 17 years. The interviewees had worked with various target groups including women, youth, SMEs, the poor and vulnerable, small and subsistence businesses, men, minorities, farmers, potential entrepreneurs, and other groups.

Being from diverse backgrounds, including research, academia and practice, interviewees discussed various aspects of program design and implementation related to objectives, constraints, targeting, program components, implementation, evaluation, achievements and weaknesses. Consequently, the analysis will indicate the opportunities and challenges of past and current entrepreneurship programs as identified by these experts in the field of entrepreneurship.

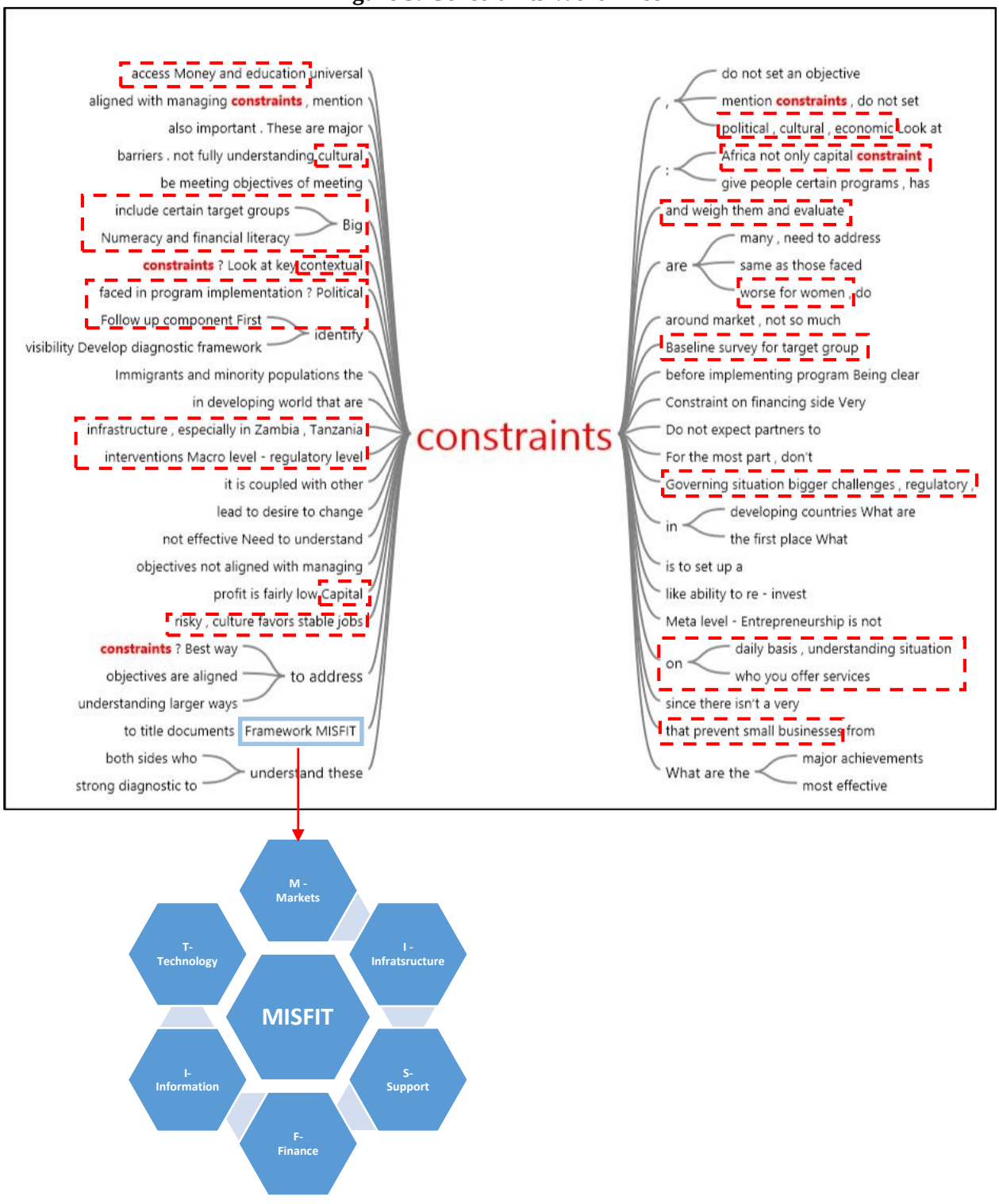
The analysis is divided into 9 themes:

1. Constraints
2. Objectives
3. Targeting
4. Design
5. Implementation
6. Monitoring and Evaluation
7. Achievements, Best Practices and Potential Areas of Interest
8. Weaknesses and Ineffective Approaches
9. Program Effectiveness

The sections below will discuss the results for each of these themes.

VI.1 Constraints

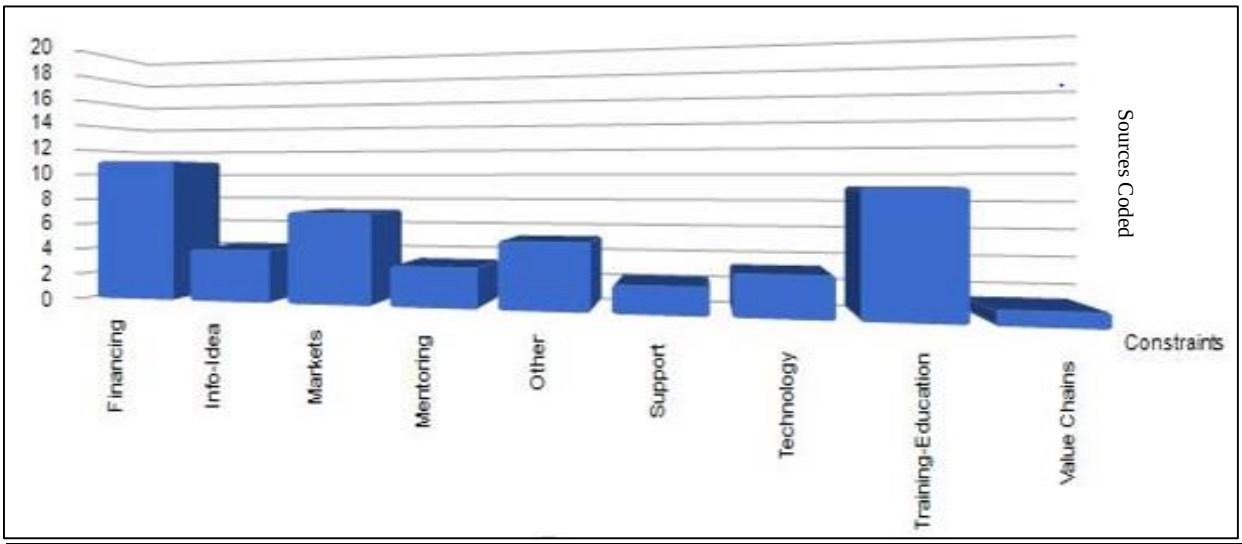
Figure 5: Constraints Word Tree



Peter Bamkole, Director of the Enterprise Development Centre, Pan-African University, cited the MISFIT Framework shown in figure 5 to elaborate upon all the constraints faced by small businesses in developing countries. According to him, lack of access to markets, infrastructure, support services, finance,

information, and technology constituted some of the main constraints faced by entrepreneurs. These constraints were brought up by several other interviewees as highlighted in figure 6 below.

Figure 6: Constraints and Program Component Types

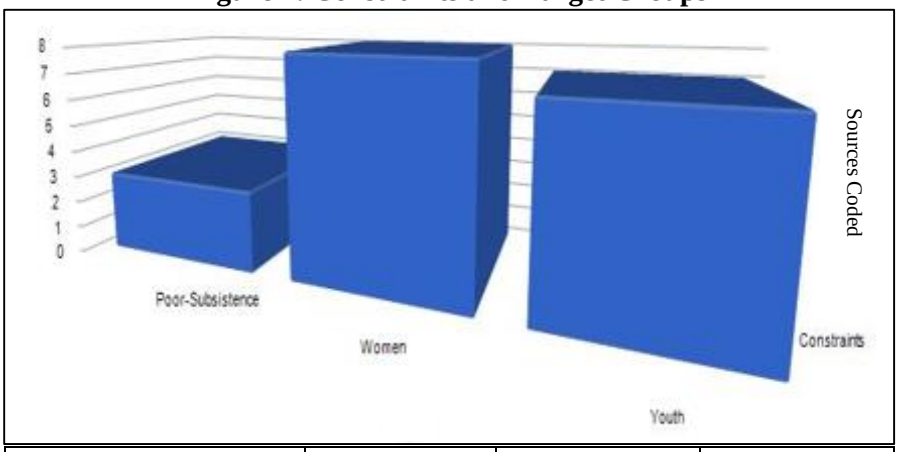


Constraints	Financing	Training-Education	Markets	Other	Info-Idea	Mentoring	Technology	Support	Value Chains
Sources Coded	11	9	7	5	4	3	3	2	1

Access to finance was the most widely discussed constraint. Interviewees not only highlighted the problem of accessing affordable finance, but also discussed the self-control and other control dimensions of finance which prevent people, especially women, from saving and re-investing in their businesses. This is especially prevalent in Africa, where these control dimensions cause finances to be directed towards family demands rather than business needs. 9 of the 11 interviewees also cited access to training and education in the form of business, financial and entrepreneurship skills as a major constraint facing entrepreneurs. Access to markets, information about markets and opportunities, access to infrastructure, access to technology especially mobile technology, and access to mentors, support services and value chain networks were other widely discussed constraints. Apart from the constraints related to program components, 2 experts also discussed other political constraints including the policy environment, accessibility of government, bureaucracy around starting a business, and the level of corruption. Cultural constraints were also discussed in light of the preference for stable jobs over entrepreneurship in many Sub-Saharan African countries like Uganda. Lastly, the ignorance about entrepreneurship as a viable career choice rather than a fallback option was another constraint to the promotion of entrepreneurship.

Aside from the general discussion about the constraints faced by entrepreneurs, the interviewees also elaborated on the constraints faced by certain target groups. As shown in figure 7 below, women were the most widely discussed group which was closely followed by youth.

Figure 7: Constraints and Target Groups

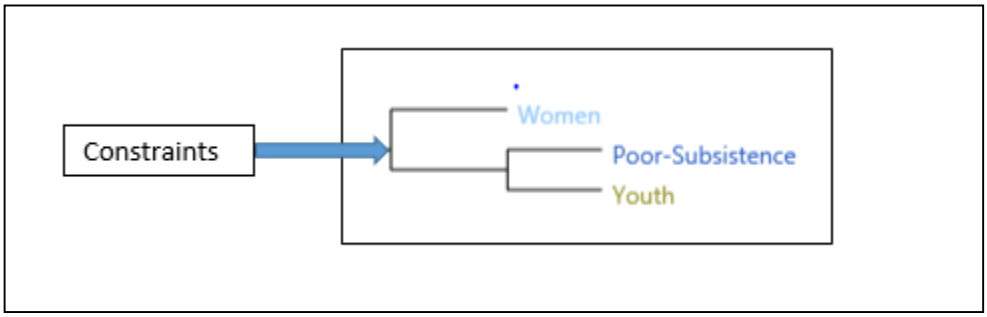


Target Groups' Constraints	Women	Youth	Poor-Subsistence
Sources Coded	8	7	3

6 of the 11 interviewees were of the opinion that youth entrepreneurs were most often constrained by their inability to access finance due to the perception that they lacked experience, were riskier to target, and had not developed enough capacity to absorb capital. The lack of collateral and banking history and the low repayment rates due to the high involvement in agricultural businesses made it even harder for them to access finance. Apart from finance, the level of skills was another major constraint on their abilities due to the lack of business, financial or entrepreneurial education or training. The absence of financial education further constrained their borrowing abilities. Furthermore, youth lack access to resources or any sort of business support such that entrepreneurship is more often than not a fallback option rather than a conscious choice.

Constraints faced by youth are also commonly faced by the poor and vulnerable and those involved in subsistence or small businesses. This clustering is also shown in figure 8 below which clubs the target groups of youth and poor-subsistence together and separates out women.

Figure 8: Clustering of Target Groups based on Constraints



The interviewees also emphasized the constraints faced by women. Similar to youth, women are constrained by a lack of access to finance due to the lack of collateral, lack of access to training and lack of access to resources. For women, accessing markets is even harder due to cultural issues which force women to work from homes. Thus, infrastructural constraints like lack of access to transport affect women more severely due to the absence of flexible options to sell their produce. Women also suffer from cultural discrimination and sexual harassment and violence especially in countries like Kenya and Tanzania where some try to cross the border to sell their output. Due to family responsibilities and demands, women suffer from a time constraint and their businesses often fall prey to the "control" problems since the money ends

up with family members rather than in the business. Use of production technologies with a low production scale and in low-potential sectors further works against women.

Recommendations for Addressing Constraints

According to Peter Bamkole, there are two types of constraints: "internal" constraints which can be resolved by entrepreneurs and "external" constraints which can only be resolved by the government. With respect to the MISFIT model described in the previous section, Bamkole stated that even though infrastructural constraints were difficult to resolve due to their "external" nature, constraints related to markets, support, finance, information, and technology could be somewhat resolved. Table 2 below displays the strategies used to identify, quantify, and prioritize addressing these and other constraints.

Table 2: Strategies for Addressing Constraints

Strategies for Addressing Constraints		**Sources Coded**
Market Assessment		5
Comprehensive Programs		3
Changes in Program Components	Training-Education	2
	Financing	2
	Mentoring	1
	Support	1
	Value Chains	1
	Info-Idea	1
	Technology	1
Targeting		1
Community Support		1
Evaluation		1

To identify and prioritize addressing constraints faced by target groups, interviewees recommended market assessments to understand the demographic profile as well as the economic, cultural and political factors influencing the target population and the entrepreneurial ecosystem. Interviewees recommended conducting baseline surveys with various stakeholders including small traders, entrepreneurs, government officials, local institutions etc. to identify constraints and evaluate them. These surveys and assessments can also be used to measure performance differentials across entrepreneurs, understand their needs, ascertain growth opportunities, and set program objectives accordingly.

Interviewees also recommended designing comprehensive programs rather than stand-alone interventions so that the different needs and multiple constraints faced by target groups can be addressed simultaneously.

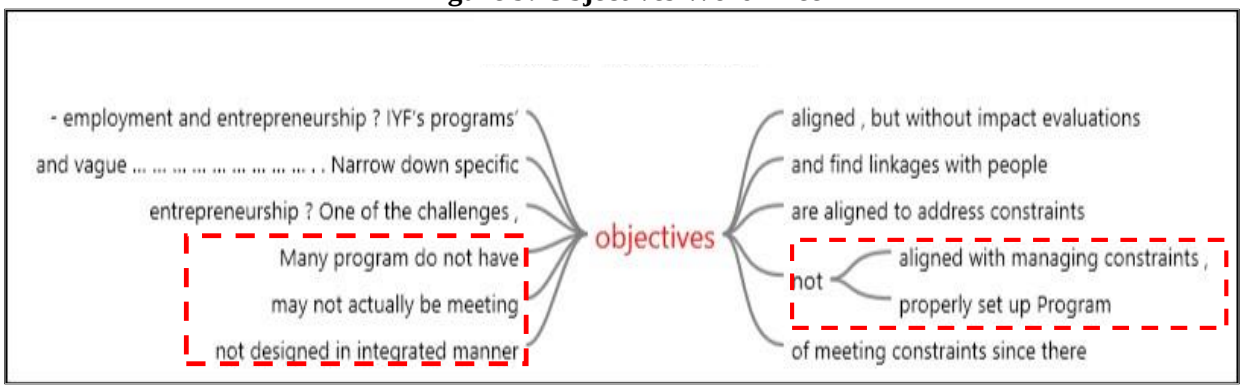
Besides the inclination towards comprehensive programs, interviewees also recommended several changes in individual program components to better address the constraints faced by target groups. With respect to training-education, experts recommended provision of financial education concerning opening a bank account, separation of personal and professional funds and loan access for the very poor. For financing, interviewees recommended linking entrepreneurs to finance in the absence of direct financing interventions. Interviewees also suggested combining provision of loans with a savings component to incentivize people to save, re-invest as well as introduce accountability. With respect to mentoring, interviewees suggested engaging established young entrepreneurs to mentor youth about business practices related to starting and running a business. Regarding support, interviewees recommended helping youth in making business plans and women with their time constraints due to family responsibilities. With respect to information and technology, interviewees recommended developing mobile infrastructure to help

beneficiaries to access information and pursue tasks. Lastly, with respect to value chains, interviewees recommended linking entrepreneurs with cooperatives, market systems, buyers, financial service providers and other intermediaries along the value chain.

Due to the challenges in addressing constraints, interviewees also suggested targeting programs towards growing entrepreneurs rather than potential ones since they were more likely to possess the requisite skills. However, to support the poor at the bottom of the pyramid, interviewees recommended forming community-based support groups to guide subsistence entrepreneurs. Finally, interviewees recommended conducting rigorous evaluations of programs, especially of new components and when programs are scaled.

VI.2 Objectives

Figure 9: Objectives Word Tree



Most of the experts were of the opinion that the objectives of majority of the entrepreneurship programs are not well-aligned or partially aligned with meeting the potential to support and encourage entrepreneurship. As mentioned in figure 9 above, interviewees claimed that the objectives are not well aligned with managing constraints since entrepreneurship programs often followed a one-stop dynamic without customizing interventions to the local context. Often, these programs are designed without a thorough market assessment of the target groups' needs and wants. In the absence of diagnostic tools to understand the constraints faced by the target populations, the objectives fail to adopt a much-needed demand-driven approach to promoting entrepreneurship. Additionally, entrepreneurship programs suffer from lost focus during the design and implementation phase since the objectives are too vast and vague, often even unachievable. This is further worsened by the presence of too many programs in the same region without any coordination or inter-linkages between them. In addition to the lost focus, the absence of all-inclusive entrepreneurship programs fails to address the multiple constraints faced by potential entrepreneurs. According to Jealous Chirove, Chief Technical Advisor at the ILO, "addressing only one constraint, does not lead to a desire to change". In line with the same, interventions like offering entrepreneurship training, or providing traditional finance in the form of loans do not work well. In fact, financing without training is often ineffective as was previously indicated in the evaluation studies. Therefore, objectives, according to most interviewees, should be reflective of a holistic approach to entrepreneurship promotion.

Contrary to the above mentioned opinions of most experts, 3 of the 11 interviewees believed that the objectives of entrepreneurship programs were rather well-aligned and programs did resolve constraints to encourage entrepreneurship. They believed that programs were increasingly becoming more holistic and program interventions were being focused towards supporting an "entire market system". The skills

provided by these kinds of programs were thought to be useful and apt and the shortcomings in program impact were attributed to program implementation rather than design.

VI.3 Targeting

Targeting is especially important because the participation and attendance of beneficiaries is a prerequisite for program success. However, effective targeting of beneficiaries remains a challenge. The reasons for the same are presented below.

Challenges of Targeting

Targeting beneficiaries for entrepreneurship programs is difficult on several accounts as discussed in table 3 below.

Table 3: Challenges of Targeting

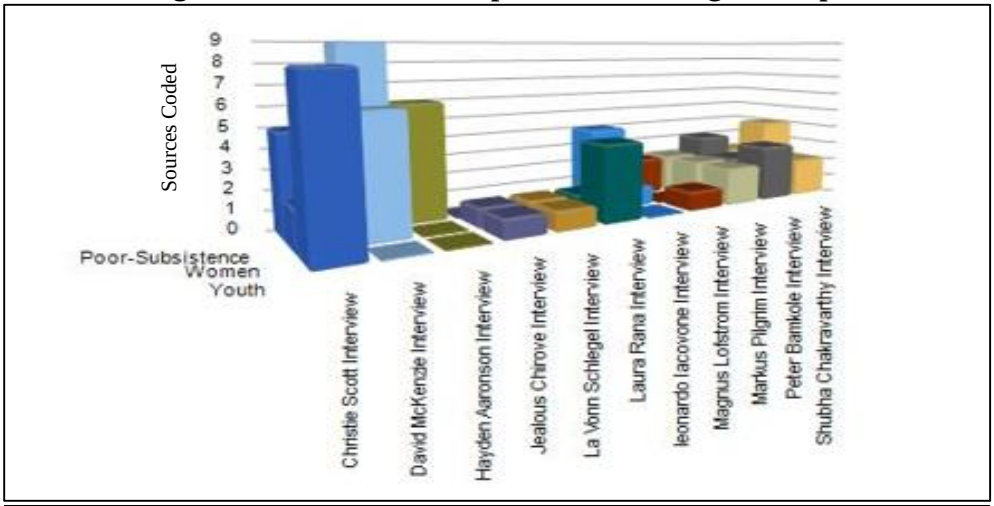
Targeting Challenges	Sources Coded
Definition, Identification, and Selection of Target Groups	7
Targeting of Youth and Poor/Subsistence Businesses	4
Marketing and Participation	4
Lack of Involvement of Local Stakeholders	3
Cultural barriers	1
Lack of coordination among programs	1

According to 7 of the 11 interviewees, the definition, identification, and selection of beneficiaries is the greatest challenge of targeting. Entrepreneurship programs, including program components like financing and training, often do not target people who need the program the most. This is because of the greater difficulties involved in reaching those at the bottom of the pyramid and in achieving outcomes for them. Programs, in fact, target small and medium enterprises rather than subsistence businesses as was stated by David McKenzie, Lead Economist at the World Bank.

Further, if the project is very narrow in its definition of a target group, the targeting system is often ineffective because of the difficulties involved in identification and selection of beneficiaries. In fact, due to these difficulties, program implementers often change the target group which is an easier alternative to changing the program. Thus, defining the criteria for targeting and selection of beneficiaries is the biggest challenge since the approaches to targeting people on the basis of alleviating poverty or on the basis of maximizing impact are completely different.

The interviewees further stressed the targeting challenges pertaining to three target groups: women, youth, and poor and vulnerable/ subsistence businesses. Figure 10 below shows that the poor/subsistence were the most often discussed target group, followed by youth and women.

Figure 10: Interviewee Responses about Target Groups



Target Groups	Poor-Subsistence	Youth	Women
Coding References	31	22	19
Sources Coded	8	8	9

Targeting youth is challenging due to their inexperience, lack of skills and support, and low-incomes. The absence of banking history and collateral makes them a risky target for financing programs even more so due to the lack of repayments. Due to this, micro-credit programs, which do not have loan guarantees, often do not reach the youth as they are not the target population. According to David McKenzie, most financing programs give "loans based on collateral rather than whether they will see return". These challenges are also common to the poor and vulnerable and those running subsistence businesses. Not only is it difficult to identify the poor and vulnerable, but training them is harder. Thus, entrepreneurship programs specifically targeted at youth and poor/subsistence need to factor in these risks in program design.

Another challenge of targeting is the lack of program marketing such that participants often remain unaware or disinterested in the program due to the opportunity costs of participation. People are often employed in other wage-earning activities. Thus, without provision of incentives or obvious benefits, securing participation of target groups is difficult. These programs have many dropouts which presents another major challenge. Consequently, programs which are based on self-selection criteria are better able to target committed participants.

However, defining these self-selection criteria requires an understanding of the local context and population characteristics. Factors such as an absence of partnerships with local intermediaries, language barriers, absence of trust between implementers and target groups, and lack of understanding of local population preclude effective targeting.

Lack of coordination between the different entrepreneurship programs targeted at the same population within a specific region, cultural preferences towards public sector jobs, and negative attitudes against female entrepreneurs are other challenges which impede targeting efforts.

Targeting Principles: Entrepreneurship vs Active Labor Market Programs

Table 4 below shows that 5 of the 11 interviewees believed that the targeting principles applicable to entrepreneurship and active labor market programs are mostly similar. In both cases, the capacity and capability measures are geared to align labor market demand and supply. According to Peter Bamkole, "the

manner and framework is the same, but what you teach is different".

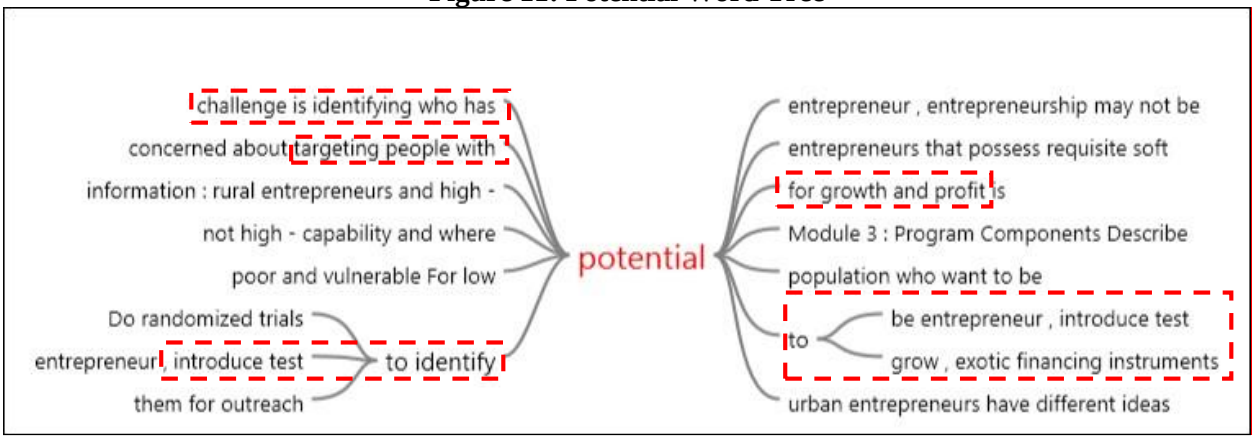
Table 4: Targeting Principles: Entrepreneurship vs Active Labor Market Programs

Entrepreneurship vs Labor Market Targeting Principles		Sources Coded
Similar/ Same principles		**5**
Different principles	Interests of Target Population	**4**
	Potential of Target Population	**6**

On the contrary, a majority of the people believed that the targeting principles for entrepreneurship and active labor market programs are different depending on the interests or potential of the people involved. Targeting people for entrepreneurship programs requires an assessment of the interests of the target population i.e. whether they are interested in becoming entrepreneurs. For example, women, in many cases, are more interested in wage employment due to the cultural constraints. Thus, the willingness of participants to start a business is a crucial differentiating targeting aspect.

Most importantly, entrepreneurship programs are based on targeting people who not only have the interest, but also the potential to be an entrepreneur. Figure 11 below highlights the various aspects of targeting people on the basis of potential for entrepreneurship.

Figure 11: Potential Word Tree



Leonardo Iacovone, Senior Economist at the World Bank, stated that the targeting principles vary depending on whether they "target the most needy person or an employer who will employ the most needy person". Targeting the latter, however, requires a careful screening of potential amongst participants. Due to the challenging nature of screening potential, catering to potential is much harder than catering to needs.

Recommendations for Targeting

To resolve the targeting challenges identified above, 6 of the 11 interviewees recommended a thorough assessment of the local population to identify target groups as shown in table 5 below.

Table 5: Recommendations for Targeting

Recommendations for Targeting	Sources Coded
Target Group Assessment and Identification	6
Involvement of local stakeholders/people	6
Understanding of Context	2
Ensure participation through accountability mechanisms	2
Incentives	1
Pricing	1

Interviewees recommended that assessments should be done to understand the characteristics, interests as well as potential of people. According to David McKenzie, "some people are naturally more likely to succeed in entrepreneurship programs". Consequently, screening potential is crucial for the long term success of programs. An important corollary of this is the role of gender in influencing the choice between self-employment and wage-employment. The program designers need to weigh in this choice while targeting programs or interventions. However, understanding this choice requires developing tools and instruments to screen the potential of individuals based on personal characteristics like communication skills, team work and other soft skills. To keep the screening process unbiased and free from the influence of local politics, Shubha Chakravarthy, Economist at the World Bank, suggested that the external program implementers can keep the selection criteria undisclosed as well as use random selection in combination with a screening mechanism to select beneficiaries.

Additionally, assessments should be used to target people who have received training, especially vocational training or training in a trade or a craft, as they have a higher chance of possessing the skills required for entrepreneurship. This can be taken a step further by targeting individuals who are in the initial but growing phase of entrepreneurship for the same reason. Magnus Lofstrom, Research Fellow at the Public Policy Institute of California, further emphasized the importance of identifying and focusing on promising young entrepreneurs. In addition to achieving clarity about the target groups for a particular project, a clear assessment of the expected results of the project needs to be done.

Along with target group assessments, the experts considered the involvement of local stakeholders or people to be equally important. La Vonn Schlegel, Director at Indiana University's School of International Business, stressed the importance of local "partnerships" to target the right population and understand their needs and constraints in order to design appropriate interventions. Other experts also emphasized the importance of local associations, networks and communities for outreach, targeting and selection of program beneficiaries. Peter Bamkole also recommended working with "champions" or local leaders within the community who not only have the ability to manage people, but also the charisma to motivate and empower them. Lastly, programs should be designed to induce self-selection of target groups.

In sync with the involvement of local community members, the interviewees highlighted the importance of understanding the local context and customizing the program depending on the demographics of a region and the needs, interests, capacities and capabilities of the local people.

Another challenge of targeting is to ensure continued participation of beneficiaries. Dropping out is a common phenomenon in such programs which has a bearing on the costs of such programs. Thus, effective targeting requires introducing accountability into program design such that participation in the program or other program benefits can be made conditional on program completion. For example, grants can be made conditional on completion of training. Additionally, keeping a record of dropouts and attendants can help understand program deficiencies or the interests of the participants for future program design.

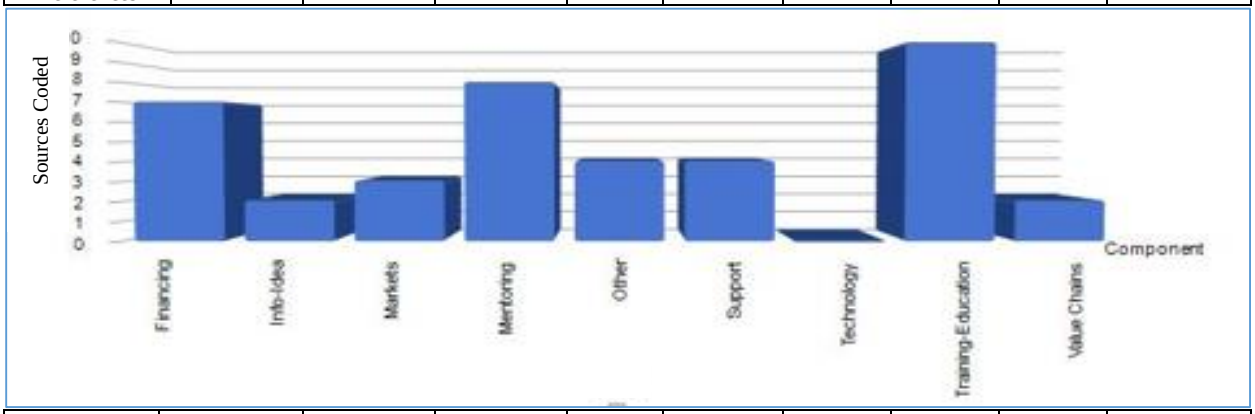
Pricing of program components is another area of experimentation to encourage accountability and sustainability of programs. At the same time, offering incentives to compensate people for the opportunity cost of participation is an alternative that needs to be explored in further detail.

VI.4 Design

This section analyzes interviewee responses concerning program components considered necessary for the design of a successful entrepreneurship program. Figure 12 below highlights the common responses.

Figure 12: Common Themes of Program Components

Components	Training-Education	Mentoring	Financing	Other	Support	Markets	Info-Idea	Value Chains	Technology
Coding References	19	10	9	7	4	3	2	2	0



Components	Training-Education	Mentoring	Financing	Other	Support	Markets	Info-Idea	Value Chains	Technology
Sources Coded	10	8	7	4	4	3	2	2	0

As shown in figure 12 above, 10 of the 11 interviewees emphasized training and education as an essential component of any entrepreneurship program. Interviewees especially emphasized basic classroom training; managerial and technical skills training; business training including basic skills like book keeping, marketing, proposal writing etc.; financial education; and vocational training. Additionally, Shubha Chakravarthy stressed the importance of life or soft skills training stating that it is "becoming increasing recognized in the vocational training world as being as important as business training". Given the importance of life skills training, organizations like the International Youth Foundation have developed a comprehensive life skills program with over 60 modules. The Foundation forms partnerships with local organizations to find out what skills are needed as well as to provide those skills. The interviewees also stressed the importance of customizing the type of training to the needs of the target group as well as the industry that is being targeted. For example, David McKenzie recommended only basic training for subsistence businesses. However, Peter Bamkole suggested a more comprehensive model of start-up training for small, micro and medium businesses which included training in four quadrants: training about

markets including customer segments, product pricing etc; financial training including expenditures, cash flow, money management etc; training in operations including production and delivery of goods and services, processes, outputs, etc.; and human resources training including management of personnel.

Mentoring was the second most emphasized component. Since mentors have prior experience in the field of entrepreneurship, they tend to have a greater influence on young entrepreneurs. Additionally, Jealous Chirove emphasized that despite its expensive nature, mentoring was especially crucial for programs which were more intensive and smaller in scale.

Financing was another major component that was considered necessary by a majority of the interviewees. David McKenzie believed that while subsistence businesses should be offered basic finance, other types of businesses should be offered a variety of financing options including venture capital, value chain finance etc. However, some interviewees believed that access to finance should depend upon an individual's ability to save and reinvest. The issue of accountability was also raised and a preference for loans over grants was expressed for the same reason. Peter Bamkole took an offbeat stance by stating that finance should be optional and a function of an entrepreneur's proven financial ability.

Support was highlighted as another important program intervention for helping entrepreneurs not only start a business but to run it. This included non-financial support and wrap-around services like providing business development services, networking support, advisory services etc. Providing linkages to markets was cited as another important program intervention required for the success and sustainability of any business. This component included teaching entrepreneurs how to find a market and educating them about product demand, different types of customers and varying needs, product pricing, etc. These components of providing access to markets also tied in with providing potential and growing entrepreneurs with information and ideas about the different types of markets, input providers and other business aspects.

Additionally, interviewees recommended the adoption of the value chains approach in entrepreneurship programs due to its growing relevance. According to Jealous Chirove, entrepreneurship required building a "systemic approach based on market exchange" which essentially involves incorporating a value chains framework in entrepreneurship programs.

Some of the other recommendations denoted under the "Other" category in figure 12 above include provision of better infrastructural facilities, capacity-building of organizations at the local level, provision of insurance to entrepreneurs to cope with the risks involved in starting a business, development of resources at the local-level, and policy-level changes to foster a favorable business environment.

On the whole, interviewees highly recommended comprehensive programs rather than stand-alone interventions for promoting entrepreneurship.

Considerations in Selecting Components for Program Design

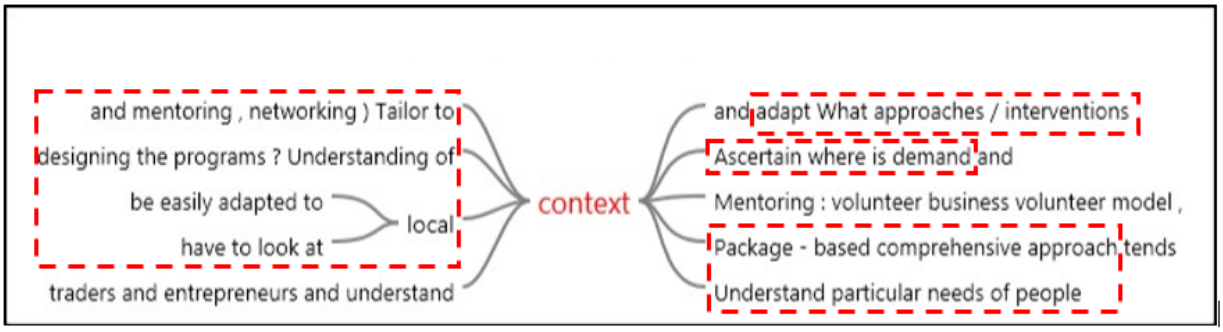
Although the previous section emphasizes the incorporation of multiple components in an entrepreneurship program, the choice between these components is based on several considerations that are given in table 6 below.

Table 6: Considerations for Program Design

Considerations for Program Design	Sources Coded
Market/Context and Target Group Assessment	10
Capacity Assessment and Development of Implementation Partners	3
Program Goal	3
Funding	3
Timeline	2
Evaluation evidence and results	2

As highlighted in the table above, context was the most important consideration for program design according to most of the experts. Interviewees stressed the importance of understanding the socio-cultural, economic and political factors that influence the needs, interests, and challenges faced by the local population. Designing of programs, therefore, needs to be preceded by target group assessments as well as general market assessments. The program components should be adapted to the local context and should be acceptable to the local population as demonstrated in figure 13 below. For example, according to Peter Bamkole, women are not allowed to go out alone in some parts of northern Nigeria such that they have to be accompanied by other women. Therefore, entrepreneurship programs targeted at Nigerian women need to respect this cultural tradition in order to be successful. Similarly program components like training, financing or mentoring need to be customized to incorporate the needs of the different target groups and the industry being targeted.

Figure 13: Context Word Tree



Further, every entrepreneurship program has two components: design and implementation. The considerations for successful program design are discussed above. However, the best of designs without good implementation cannot lead to program success. Therefore, the choice of implementing organization is key to program success. To cater to the local context, most interviewees recommended forming partnerships with local organizations to implement programs. However, an assessment of these partners' implementation capacities is a prerequisite to forming local partnerships. Many organizations like the International Youth Foundation use capacity assessment tools to identify partners. However, in regions populated by the very poor, Hayden Aaronson, Technical Director, Enterprise Development, ACDI VOCA, suggested bringing in external implementers due to the absence of local implementers or capacity. In general, interviewees recommended substantiating capacity assessments with capacity building and training of local implementation partners.

Interviewees also emphasized the goal of the program as the core consideration for program design since components need to be designed based on what the program is trying to achieve. However, interviewees did recommend incorporating interventions to stimulate changes in behaviors and attitudes towards entrepreneurship.

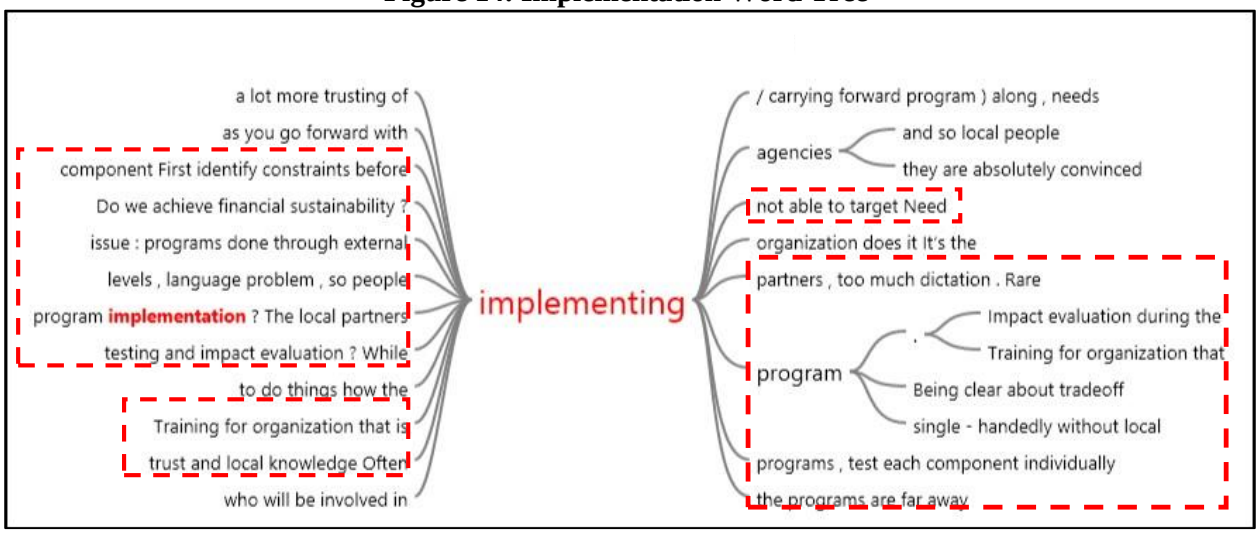
The above discussion has focused on demand for entrepreneurship programs. However, the supply of programs requires a consideration of the costs of provision. Therefore, interviewees believed that not only should the programs be sufficiently funded, but they should have a phased subsidy system to achieve financial sustainability over the long-term.

The concern about financial sustainability directly relates to the timeline of the program. According to interviewees, timeline is an important consideration since promoting entrepreneurship requires designing programs which are not only longer-term, but also sustainable. This is because, unlike other interventions, entrepreneurship has a longer gestation period.

Lastly, due to the lack of evaluation evidence concerning entrepreneurship programs, interviewees recommended designing programs by first including components that have been tested somewhere else and later adding more components and testing each one individually and in combination.

VI.5 Implementation

Figure 14: Implementation Word Tree



Although the design element of entrepreneurship programs is widely discussed and debated, the implementation element of such programs is equally, if not more important. As indicated in figure 14 above, effective implementation of entrepreneurship programs draws upon several elements of programs including identification of constraints, design of components, targeting mechanisms for the different target groups, overcoming language and communication barriers, recruitment and training of local partners, funding, achieving financial sustainability, as well as monitoring and evaluation. Due to the multi-dimensional nature of implementation, there are bound to be several challenges. These have been discussed in the section below.

Challenges of Implementation

Although implementation was considered to be a challenging process by all the interviewees, 2 experts even stated that implementation of entrepreneurship programs was more difficult than their design. Table 7 below summarizes the main challenges faced in implementation as was identified by the interviewees.

Table 7: Challenges of Implementation

Implementation Challenges	Sources Coded
Weak Monitoring and Evaluation of Outcomes	5
Choice of Program Implementer	3
Capacity of Implementation Partners	3
Sustainability of program	3
Participation and Attendance of Target groups	3
Pricing	2
Timeline	2
Funding	2
Scale	2
Context-specific implementation	2
Political constraints	1
Excess Donor Involvement	1
Communication and Cultural barriers	1
Difficulties from beneficiary side	1
Saturated markets and lost focus	1
Marketing of program	1
Issues of trust and knowledge	1
Offering holistic package	1

The most commonly quoted implementation challenge concerned the monitoring and evaluation of program outcomes. 5 experts believed that the distance between the local implementation partners and the external implementing agencies often led to a system of monitoring in which the local partners self-reported results, which were subject to biases.

This challenge fed into concerns about the suitability of program implementers, their capacity to carry out programs as well as the sustainability of programs. Interviewees cited a tradeoff between implementation by an external program implementer and implementation by local partners. While the former approach leads to better monitoring and evaluation, the latter is less costly and likely to be more long-term and sustainable. However, developing the capacity of local partners is a precondition to involving them in the implementation process. This is especially important as program implementation often suffers since the local partners lack resources, systems and the budget to implement programs.

Ensuring participation and attendance of target groups is another major challenge. The opportunity cost of attending training for many participants is lost wages. Women are further constrained by time due to their family responsibilities. Additionally, sometimes program participants do not fully understand program components like repayment polices of financing interventions etc. Thus, dropouts are very common among such programs and ensuring participation is difficult.

Interviews also cited the pricing of programs as a challenge due to the participants' inability to pay as well as the overlap between multiple programs in the same region. The inability to charge users in many cases causes budgetary shortages. Funding is also complicated by the fact that the grants are usually set up at the beginning of the project without any knowledge about the project's absorption capacity. Apart from funding, meeting project timelines as well as project scaling are common challenges.

In addition, adjusting program implementation to the local context is a time-consuming process. The lack of best practices or evaluation data for implementation processes presents a huge challenge as well as an opportunity for program implementers.

Several other implementation challenges that were brought up in the interviewees have been highlighted in table 7 above.

Recommendations for Implementation

Since the biggest challenge to implementation pertained to monitoring and evaluation, interviewees attributed the highest priority to building a continuous system of monitoring and evaluation into program design as highlighted in table 8 below.

Table 8: Recommendations for Implementation

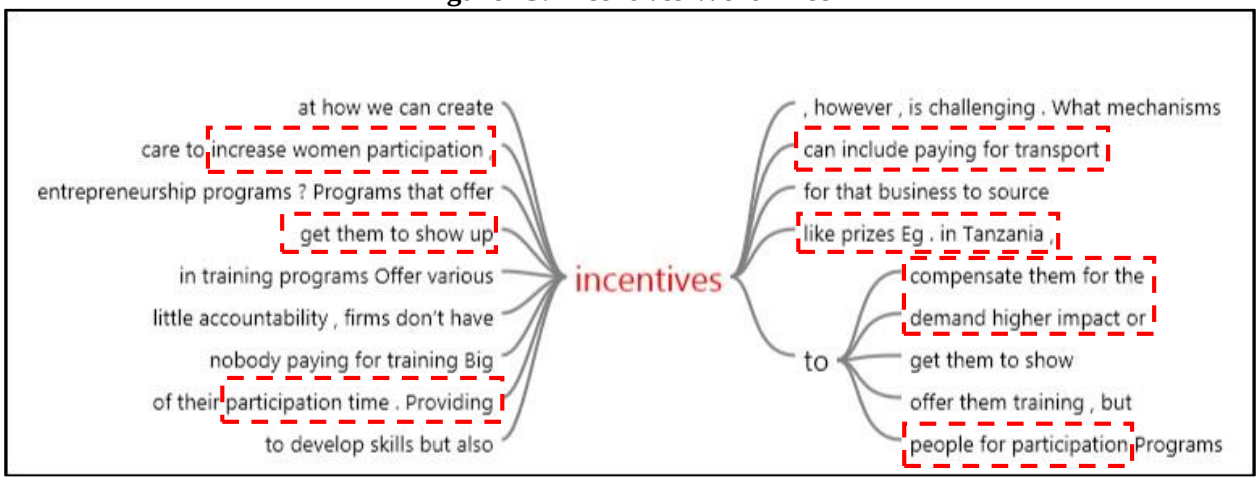
Recommendations for Implementation	Sources Coded
Continuous Monitoring and Evaluation	5
Involvement of local Partners in program implementation	5
Incentivizing Target groups to ensure participation	3
Ensuring Sustainability of program	2
Improve/Support Capacity of Implementation partners	1
Milestone Funding	1
Coordinated approach to programs	1
Sharing Best Practices	1

The interviewees recommended constant evaluation and re-evaluation of program components, especially in instances where any changes were made to program components or design. The interviewees also recommended evaluating a program every time it was implemented in a country for the first time. Evaluations were considered to be especially crucial for large-scale programs. With respect to monitoring of programs, interviewees recommended developing a results-tracking system early in the program as well as hiring college-level student volunteers or NGO staff to deal with monitoring issues in the midst of program implementation.

To tailor programs to the local context, interviewees recommended the involvement of local partners in program implementation as highlighted in table 8 above. According to Markus Pilgrim, Manager, Small Enterprises Unit, Enterprises Department of the ILO, program implementers "need to go through local intermediaries to achieve outreach and lower costs". However, the "champion" or local leader selected to carry forward the mission of the project must not only be involved in motivating people to participate and in implementing the project, but he/she also needs to be offered a support system to sustain the effort. In addition to better targeting, the local partners also contribute new ideas which help to design innovative interventions to cater to the needs of the people. Thus, the local people should be involved in not only the implementation stage, but also the design stage.

Ensuring participation in the program, however, requires more than a motivating "champion". Offering incentives to the target groups in the form of transport allowance, lunch vouchers, prizes, certificates, monetary prizes, child care facilities, etc. can compensate people for the opportunity cost of their participation and also improve attendance. As highlighted in figure 15 below, incentives like the provision of child care are especially important for women since they face a time constraint due to their family obligations.

Figure 15: Incentives Word Tree



To ensure sustainability of a program, the interviewees highly recommended that program implementers have a clear exit strategy and find local sponsors or NGOs to fund and execute long-term operations.

To delegate implementation to external agencies, however, requires training and capacity building. Thus, the program implementers should not only support and train the local partners in their implementation efforts, but also train the NGOs or any other organization that shall sustain their efforts in the future.

Other recommendations to improve program implementation included a coordinated approach to implementing programs in a particular region or for a specific target group, adoption of a milestone funding approach in which future funding is based on the achievement of interim targets, sharing of best practices, learning from pilots and study visits, and an increased number of mid-term evaluations.

VI.6 Monitoring and Evaluation

Table 9: Monitoring and Evaluation

Area of Evaluation	Sources Coded
Training	4
Individual program components and combination of program components	4
Monitoring and Evaluation throughout program	3
Comparative evaluations of different programs	3
Evaluation of pilots of new interventions or programs	3
Repository of types of programs	3
Target groups	3
Price-based mechanisms	2
Financing	2
Scaling of Programs	2
Mentoring	2
Targeting mechanisms	1
Constraints	1
Costs	1
Access and Connectivity to Markets	1
Insurance	1

As shown in table 9 above, with respect to monitoring and evaluation of programs, experts most often cited training, especially life skills training and training with and without finance, as a program component that required evaluation. Training, according to Jealous Chirove, is "seen as a natural intervention, but no one knows the impact".

Apart from training, there is a general shortage of evaluations due to the lack of standardized interventions which are implemented similarly across various regions of the world. Therefore, 4 of the interviewees were curious to understand the interaction effects between different components of a program. Thus, they believed that during the implementation phase, evaluations should preferably be conducted for individual components, combinations of components as well as the entire program. According to them, this would help to differentiate the impact of the interventions and the program from the contribution of other factors like implementation modality, target population, region etc. to program outcomes.

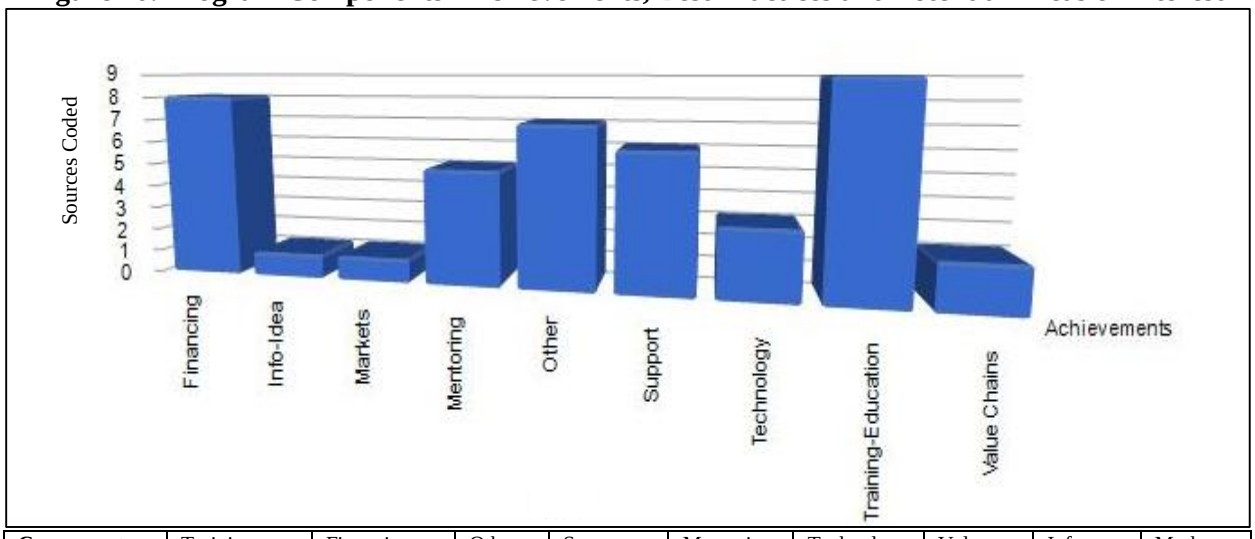
Other areas that were identified for evaluations included comparative evaluations of different types of programs for example comparison of training with mentoring, or comparison of different life skills programs etc.; evaluations of pilots of new programs or interventions; and evaluations of target groups to study their influence on program outcomes. 3 experts also recommended the creation of a "repository of types of programs" to understand what kinds of programs work where and the reasons for the same.

Table 9 above highlights several other areas of evaluation that were brought up in the interviews.

VI.7 Achievements, Best Practices and Potential Areas of Interest

This section discusses the achievements, best practices and potential areas of interest with respect to entrepreneurship programs. Figure 16 below presents a graphical illustration of the interviewee responses pertaining to the positive and prospective aspects of the various components of entrepreneurship programs.

Figure 16: Program Components - Achievements, Best Practices and Potential Areas of Interest



Component	Training-Education	Financing	Other	Support	Mentoring	Technology	Value Chains	Info-Idea	Markets
Sources Coded	9	8	7	6	5	3	2	1	1

As shown in figure 16 above, interviewees most often discussed the positive aspects of training and education interventions, followed by financing, support, and mentoring. This is in sync with the top four components that were considered essential aspects of entrepreneurship programs.

The next three sections will discuss the achievements, best practices and potential areas of interest with respect to the components highlighted above as well as other features of entrepreneurship design and implementation.

Achievements

As shown in table 10 below, according to several interviewees, the financing component of entrepreneurship programs had more than a few achievements due to several innovations and modifications. The combination of savings and loans was considered to be successful as it incentivized people to save and reinvest and therefore led to higher capital accumulation. Competitive grant schemes, in which entrepreneurs would compete for funding through their innovative startup ideas, were another financing method that worked well, although on a small-scale. La Vonn Schlegel also recommended greater applicability of table-banking, a savings system in which individuals form groups and contribute funds to a bank, buy shares in the bank, and use those shares to provide micro-loans to other members of the group to start and run enterprises. According to Schlegel, this program was created by the Family Reservation Institute to "find ways to improve financial well-being of villages" under the "AMPATH" USAID Program in North-West Kenya. According to her, the table-banking method contributed to significant program success as it not only saved $1000 in loans, but it also generated $3000 in productivity incomes and $1000 in interest income. Lastly, most successful programs combined financing with training, especially financial skills training.

Table 10: Achievements of Entrepreneurship Programs

Achievements	Sources Coded
Financing	3
Support	3
Awareness	2
Info-Idea	1
Value Chains	1
Funding	1
Evaluation	1
Technology	1
Training-Education	1
Involvement of Youth	1

Apart from financing, interviewees credited the provision of support services, especially business development and extension services, as being a major achievement due to their significant role in helping entrepreneurs.

Interviewees also stressed the importance of spreading awareness about entrepreneurship as a viable career option rather than a back-up vocation. With respect to the same, Peter Bamkole stated that over the last 5-10 years, people's attitudes towards entrepreneurship have changed.

Other achievements of entrepreneurship programs, as cited by interviewees, included improved access to market information due to expansion of the mobile phone market, greater emphasis on designing programs to strengthen whole market systems via the value chains framework, higher availability of funds for entrepreneurship programs, gradual increase in the number of evaluations of entrepreneurship programs,

improved technology access especially mobile phones among small businesses, increased adoption of entrepreneurship curriculum by universities, and greater involvement of youth in entrepreneurship.

Finally, the limited number of evaluations and the lack of comparative analyses since interventions are not replicated across countries, often precluded some interviewees from discussing achievements.

Best Practices

With regard to best practices in the design and implementation of entrepreneurship programs, the interviewees' top recommendation was designing comprehensive programs as highlighted in table 11 below. Interviewees believed that holistic programs were more effective in addressing the multiple constraints faced by target groups and therefore in promoting entrepreneurship.

Table 11: Best Practices of Entrepreneurship Programs

Best Practice	Sources Coded
Comprehensive package	6
Training-Education	5
Financing	5
Mentoring	4
Support	4
Monitoring and Evaluation	4
Involvement of local partners in implementation	4
Context-specific programs	4
Sustainability	2
Success Stories	2
Value Chains	1

With respect to the training-education component of entrepreneurship programs, interviewees believed that training in technical and soft skills, vocational training, training combined with financing, and training which ensured accountability and participation were some of the best practices.

For financing interventions, combining finance with micro-insurance, combining credit with savings to increase capital accumulation, provision of savings or bank accounts, linking the entrepreneurship sector to the financial sector, financing interventions that lend money based on potential rather than ability to repay, and grants that are linked to innovation are considered best practices according to experts.

Mentoring, Support and Follow-up services were also considered to be best practices. Interviewees considered mentoring to be an essential component of entrepreneurship programs especially if the program was a small-scale, intensive program. In the case of support, interviewees recommended shorter classroom trainings and longer follow-ups and post-program support.

With regard to monitoring and evaluation of entrepreneurship programs, interviewees considered programs with in-built and continuous monitoring and evaluation systems to be ideal.

Stakeholder mapping to form partnerships with local intermediaries and community members for program implementation was highlighted as another best practice. Interviewees also recommended selecting a local "champion" to motivate and lead the community to implement and participate in the program. Interviewees also commended programs that were based on an understanding of the local community and adapted interventions to the local context.

Building local capacity and training local partners to manage and run the program for long-term sustainability was another best practice cited by interviewees.

According to Hayden Aaronson, meeting and studying successful entrepreneurs is extremely effective. The impact of this intervention, according to him, is underestimated. This was also reiterated by Jealous Chirove.

Interviewees also cited value chains as a prospective best practice. Hayden Aaronson differentiated between direct and indirect beneficiaries of entrepreneurship programs and recommended targeting programs towards the former group which consists of growing enterprises, usually SMEs, and linking them to value chains and the market system to help them grow. However, according to him, incentives can be created for these SMEs to source inputs, products or services from the smaller, subsistence businesses so that the latter can indirectly benefit from the program. Thus, he cited this dual model of supporting larger businesses to grow while helping smaller businesses to meet output demands of larger businesses as a best practice.

Other best practices suggested by interviewees included offering incentives to target groups to ensure participation, building and scaling the program over time by piloting and evaluating each intervention before scaling, creating local infrastructure, and addressing systemic issues of a region over time rather than just focusing on individual enterprises.

Potential Areas of Interest

According to interviewees, entrepreneurship programs may have several potential areas of interest that are relatively untapped. These have been highlighted in table 12 below.

Table 12: Potential Areas of Interest of Entrepreneurship Programs

Potential Areas of Interest	Sources Coded
Training-Education	2
Insurance	2
Financing	2
Value Chains	2
Evaluation	2
Support	2
Implementation	1
Technology	1
Integrative programs	1
Commitment mechanism	1
Micro franchising	1
Markets	1
Anti-GBV measures	1
Non-stereotypical trades for women	1

With respect to training, interviewees believed that the experiential nature of entrepreneurship needs to be incorporated in training, rather than following a classroom-based theoretical approach. They also stressed the greater need to explore the potential of life skills training especially since it was increasingly matching up to business training in importance as discussed before. Interviewees also emphasized the unexplored potential of insurance to help entrepreneurs cope with the risks of starting and running a business. Regarding financing interventions, interviewees recommended exploring table-banking

methods in greater detail and testing their applicability. They also recommended linking entrepreneurs to venture capitalists and social impact investors as well as linking microfinance with business support and mentoring.

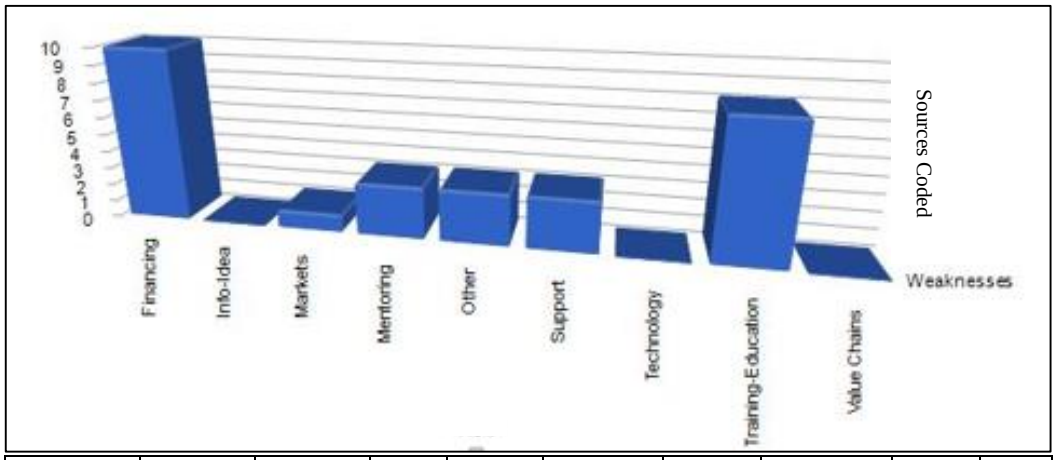
With respect to program design, interviewees emphasized supporting whole market systems to promote better income-generating opportunities for entrepreneurs. They recommended incorporating the value chains framework to do the same.

Other potential areas included greater flexibility in implementation methodology to determine the kinks of implementing similar designs in different regions, automation of businesses, commitment mechanisms to ensure participation, microfranchising models, greater access to markets, higher number of impact evaluations, long-term follow-up support, greater integration of local stakeholders, incorporation of anti-GBV (Gender Based Violence) measures, and interventions to support women's participation in non-stereotypical trades.

VI.8 Weaknesses and Ineffective Approaches

This section discusses the weaknesses and ineffective approaches with respect to entrepreneurship programs. Figure 17 below presents a graphical illustration of the interviewee responses pertaining to unfavorable and negative aspects of the various components of entrepreneurship programs.

Figure 17: Program Components - Weaknesses and Ineffective Approaches



Component	Financing	Training-Education	Other	Support	Mentoring	Markets	Technology	Value Chains	Info-Idea
Sources Coded	10	8	3	3	3	1	0	0	0

The figure above highlights the unfavorable aspects of various components of entrepreneurship programs with financing, training-education, support, and mentoring being the most contentious components in descending order of importance. These components shall be discussed in further detail below along with other features of entrepreneurship design and implementation.

All but one of the interviewees discussed the weaknesses of current financing interventions as shown in table 13 below.

Table 13: Weaknesses and Ineffective Approaches

Weaknesses and Ineffective Approaches	Sources Coded
Financing	10
Training-Education	8
Targeting	7
Evaluation	5
Lack of comprehensive programs	4
Implementation	4
Support	3
Mentoring	3
Sustainability	3
Context	3
Funding	2

Interviewees believed that financing without training was not an effective intervention. In fact, financing interventions, especially micro-credit and microfinance, did not even target the poorest of the poor as these target groups lacked any collateral or banking history. Due to the same reason, even youth and small businesses face challenges accessing finance as they are perceived as high risk target groups. Further micro-credit programs charge very high interest rates. In fact, due to the strict conditions of microfinance and the frequent repayment obligations, microfinance is believed to be geared towards "household investment and consumption, but not entrepreneurship", according to Leonardo Iacovone. Moreover, microfinance and other banking interventions focus on repayment of loans rather than experimenting with aspects like grace periods, frequency of payments etc. Due to this, they are not effective at promoting entrepreneurship. Apart from micro-credit and microfinance, even grants are usually given to high-skilled poor people. However, interviewees claimed that providing finance to women running subsistence enterprises is usually ineffective as the money is not always invested in the enterprise. To ensure that the funds are invested in the business, financing interventions should incorporate components like in-kind financing, commitment devices, conditional transfer payments etc. Without such mechanisms, finance will not be utilized in the business necessarily and an excess of capital will distort the market.

Apart from financing, 8 of the interviewees also highlighted complications in training and education interventions. According to David McKenzie, training programs usually provide basic business skills that may not be universally applicable or effective. He also stated that training programs that last 5-6 days are inadequate, however longer training programs are cost-ineffective since the beneficiaries do not usually pay for these trainings. This was reiterated by Shubha Chakravarthy who said that "general business skills training and general skills training do not have that much of an impact, at least in Africa". In general, training is the most common intervention as people have some knowledge about implementing training programs. However, most of these programs do not provide training that is relevant to the local context. Training programs, therefore, should focus more on providing industry-specific skills training. Further, classroom based training is not effective as entrepreneurship training requires experiential learning.

A majority of the interviewees also cited issues with targeting. As discussed above, many of these programs do not target those who really need support including the poorest, youth and small businesses. Additionally, many programs ignore demographic characteristics of target groups like age group, gender etc. Programs especially fail to target women and especially to retain them. Sometimes, targeting mechanisms are flawed since they include people who do not necessarily benefit from such programs as they may not have the interest or potential to be entrepreneurs.

Interviewees cited monitoring and evaluation as another area of concern due to the lack of monitoring on account of the distance between the local partners and main implementing organization,

absence of rigorous evaluations because of the lack of standardized interventions, and lack of learning due to the dearth of comparative cases with analysis.

Interviewees also critiqued entrepreneurship programs on account of the lack of comprehensive interventions. Stand-alone interventions were considered to be ineffective and interviewees claimed that holistic programs were needed to address the multiple constraints and to create a "desire for change" among the target groups.

Implementation constituted another area of contention. Interviewees cited challenges with respect to involving local intermediaries in program implementation due to the intermediaries' lack of capacity and resources which often stall implementation. Additionally, program implementation suffers because the implementers fail to involve stakeholders like government bodies etc.

Interviewees cited lack of adequate support and follow-up services as another weakness of entrepreneurship programs. The program implementers do not invest enough in support services and the period for which follow-up services are provided is usually very short-lived. This also applies to mentoring interventions which are mostly inadequate due to their expensive nature.

The interviewees also discussed the sustainability of programs as another area of concern since many programs are implemented without the involvement of local partners and authorities which discounts the importance of long-term sustainability for maximum program impact.

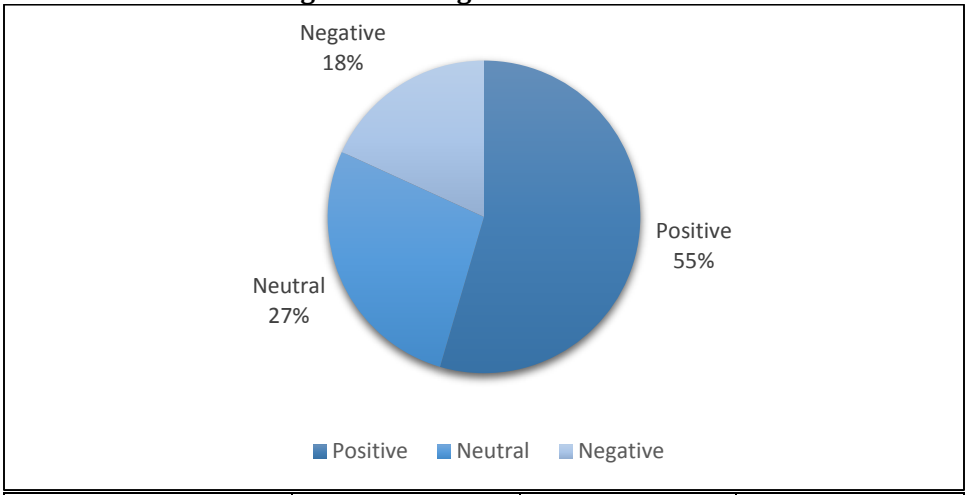
Further, interviewees critiqued the tendency of some program designers and implementers to implement a standardized program or intervention in different regions without understanding the local context and other factors influencing the specific target groups.

Other approaches that were considered to be ineffective or unsuccessful by interviewees included over-investment in certain interventions leading to a cost-ineffective program, lack of coordination between similar programs in a region leading to overlap and misplaced focus, lack of alignment between program objectives and interventions, short-term nature of some programs, and an emphasis on only supporting individual enterprises rather than changing the overall market system.

VI.9 Program Effectiveness

According to 6 of the 11 interviewees, entrepreneurship programs were effective or at least had the potential to be so as shown in figure 18 below.

Figure 18: Program Effectiveness



Program Effectiveness	Positive Response	Neutral Response	Negative Response
Sources Coded	6	3	2

Despite the lack of evidence about the impact of entrepreneurship programs, the interviewees believed that the various interventions under entrepreneurship programs had a positive impact. The supply-side interventions have limited benefits due to the shortage of jobs. Due to this, entrepreneurship is not only a potential option, but an important need. The impact of entrepreneurship programs, however, varies across regions and target groups and is dependent on design, implementation, adaptability to context etc. Entrepreneurship is not so effective for the poor and vulnerable, low-skilled populations, and for subsistence businesses. It works better for people with some training and for SMEs. Thus, even though entrepreneurship has a strong potential, it may not be a viable option for those at the bottom of the pyramid. Nevertheless, over a longer time period, entrepreneurship can have a significant large-scale impact.

VII. Discussion

The previous sections provided insights into the challenges and potential opportunities in the design and implementation of entrepreneurship programs as detailed by project evaluation and assessment documents and interviewee responses.

In the analysis section, it became clear that certain aspects of program design and implementation formed the common thread among the various themes of the interviews.

The interviewees identified access to finance, training, markets, support services, and information as some of the main constraints faced by target groups. Youth are particularly financially constrained due to the lack of banking history, collateral or financial education. They are also constrained by lack of requisite entrepreneurial or business and managerial skills, and lack of access to resources or support. For youth, entrepreneurship is mostly a fallback option rather than a conscious career choice. Young women are further constrained by infrastructural deficits since in the absence of transport facilities, many women are unable to sell their produce or products. Cultural traditions and family commitments, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, further present challenges as women are not only discouraged to be self-employed, but family and social networks make demands on their time and resources, which could otherwise have been directed towards enterprise growth.

Due to the multiple constraints faced by young men and women, many of the entrepreneurship programs are not well-aligned to cater to the needs of the youth. This is due to the huge preoccupation with

stand-alone interventions rather than comprehensive programs. Lack of market and target group assessments leading to a subsequent lack of program adaptation to the local context of the region is another major issue that prevents program success. The latter is a major reason which prevents effective targeting of beneficiaries. The challenges of targeting and achieving impact amongst the youth, who tend to be poor and vulnerable with small or subsistence businesses, cause programs to be targeted at small and medium enterprises instead. Most of the financing programs target people based on collateral rather than potential to see returns. Due to this, youth face major challenges in accessing finance and various other components like training, support etc. that are required to run a successful enterprise.

To resolve these constraints and encourage entrepreneurship, the interviewees recommended several interventions that needed to be incorporated for the success of an entrepreneurship program. With respect to design, interviewees highly recommended training, especially business, life skills, vocational, and industry specific training; mentoring; financing including savings products and financial linkages; support and wrap-around services; access to information, links to value chains and other resources. Overall, interviewees were highly in favor of comprehensive programs rather than individual interventions. In addition to favorable design, interviewees cited effective implementation as being even more important for program success. Involvement of local stakeholders in the implementation process, continuous monitoring and evaluation, incentivizing target groups to ensure participation, financial sustainability, and constant adaptation of programs to the local situation were advocated as some of the best practices for successful implementation.

Overall, in the absence of wage-employment opportunities in Sub-Saharan Africa, entrepreneurship is not only a necessity, but an extremely important career option for the growing number of youth.

Apart from the experiences of interviewees, evaluations of past programs also provide insights into the successes and failures of various components of entrepreneurship programs. A discussion of the same might provide a roadway into the missing literature on best practices of entrepreneurship programs in Africa to better capitalize on entrepreneurship as a potential career option for the present and future generations of African youth.

Evaluation studies of self-employment programs from Africa, South Asia and other parts of the world have shown optimistic results of providing financing interventions (Blattman and Annan, 2011). Studies of groups including farmers from Ghana, small entrepreneurs from Sri Lanka, youth from Uganda, and the poorest women and men from rural areas show varied returns from 30% to 60% of capital invested (Blattman and Annan, 2011). These results highlight the heterogeneity of entrepreneurial impact due to the role of individual personal characteristics, potential, and capacities in influencing program impact (Blattman and Annan, 2011). However, on a more general level, "high ability, more patient, less risk-averse, and more capital-constrained people perform better when given access to capital and basic business skills training" (Blattman and Annan, 2011). The latter is in accord with the recommendation of interviewees to combine financing with training, especially financial skills training.

With respect to the poor and vulnerable, many interviewees recommended grants due to the target groups' inability to borrow on account of lack of collateral or any banking history. Evaluation studies also supported the interviewees' preference for grants. The Youth Opportunities Program, which provided youth with grants to buy skills training and start-up kits, led to growth of business assets and income among young men and women. Africa, where entrepreneurs are not only extremely poor, but also face a major financing crunch, is an ideal place for directing cash grants towards business stimulation. Grants were emphasized as microfinance, which is a common source of finance in Uganda, was considered ineffective (Blattman et al., 2013). Evidence from Uganda suggests that microfinance is an expensive source of short-term finance with extremely harsh payback conditions involving interest rates of over 100% (Blattman et al., 2013). Thus, lowering these interest rates and increasing the term length of the loans was considered to be essential for

improving the effectiveness of microfinance as an instrument for business growth (Blattman et al., 2013). However, despite the program's support for unconditional cash transfers for the poorest of the poor, the authors of the YOP impact evaluation suggested that "a regular stream of transfers is better suited than a one-time grant at stimulating productive investment" (Blattman et al., 2013). Results of another randomized experiment, although in favor of grants, recommended in-kind grants over cash grants due to the self-control problems faced by beneficiaries (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Many other programs around the world also emphasize in-kind grants due to other control problems caused by external pressure from family members or social networks to share the funds (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Studies from Côte d'Ivoire indicated that sharing norms caused individuals to develop an "illiquidity preference" in order to evade external pressure without offending anyone (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Similar studies in South Africa showed that households with higher number of family members and social links tended to invest less in liquid assets which could be shared (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Evidence from Sri Lanka, goes a step further by establishing a potential causality between household members' pressure to share resources and the low business returns of female-owned businesses (Fafchamps et al., 2011). This evidence also suggested the need for incorporating in-kind financing products as a part of microfinance (Fafchamps et al., 2011).

Apart from grants and microfinance, interviewees and evaluation studies were both strongly in favor of savings and commitment products to improve capital accumulation among potential and growing entrepreneurs for business investment. The results of an experiment that offered commitment accounts to Malawian farmers indicated positive effects on savings and farm incomes. Similar to in-kind grants, commitment accounts helped individuals cope with self-control or other control problems by keeping their savings inaccessible from family members. Interest-free savings accounts also served the same function as was witnessed in a field experiment in Kenya. In many African countries, informal alternatives to formal savings or commitment accounts have been established in the form of "susu" collectors who are informal bankers with whom the poor deposit money without earning any interest rate (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). Rotating Savings and Credit Associations (ROSCAs) are another such mechanism in developing countries in which people participate to deposit funds to achieve illiquidity (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). These mechanisms work similar to a commitment device and help increase savings and capital accumulation as was confirmed by interviewees.

Further, interviewees were also in favor of providing entrepreneurs, especially small and medium entrepreneurs, access to venture capital, social impact funding and other financial linkages. The Venture Capital Trust Fund, which provided entrepreneurs in Ghana with seed capital, was successful in creating jobs. However, skills training and awareness raising among the entrepreneurs were essential components of this success. Lastly, interviewees also cited insurance as a potential area of interest. Although, lack of evidence about the impact of insurance prevents definite conclusions, an experiment in Malawi indicated that farmers preferred uninsured loans due to the implicit insurance provided by the limited liability clause of loans. Due to this, the authors suggested combining credit with insurance to reduce the risk of default on loans (Gine and Yang, 2009).

Similar to financing interventions, skills training programs also show promising but varied results (Blattman and Annan, 2011). Interviewees did not consider general business skills training to be effective for the Sub-Saharan African context. However, evaluation studies suggested that "vocational skills training and agricultural extension programs work better in the poorest countries (Blattman and Annan, 2011). Interviewees also emphasized life skills, vocational skills and industry-specific training. In accordance with the same, the Economic Empowerment of Adolescent Girls and Young Women (EPAG) project, which provided young Liberian women with business development skills, life skills and job skills training as well as job placement support, increased savings, employment and earnings (The World Bank. 2013n).

However, although interviewees were generally in favor of providing training, they were not definite about its impact on encouraging entrepreneurship. Evidence from a randomized experiment in

Tanzania indicated the ineffectiveness of business training in affecting business profits and sales (Berge et al., 2011). Moreover, the Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents program, which provided adolescent girls in Uganda vocational and life skills training, increased the likelihood of their participation in income-generating activities, but did not actually contribute to a higher number of enterprises. Similarly, an experiment which provided managerial training to micro and small entrepreneurs in Ghana improved adoption of productive business practices, but the impact on productivity was uncertain (Mano et al., 2011). Other evaluations also cited the concern with self-selection of beneficiaries due to the difficulty in attributing program impact to the interventions offered or to the self-selection of beneficiaries with higher interest or potential. Finally, apprenticeships were not considered to be significantly effective, especially for women, due to the high opportunity cost of participation; other expenses like travel, accommodation etc. required for participation; distance from workshops; cultural barriers; and other reasons. Provision of incentives, monetary or non-monetary, was recommended by interviewees to increase participation and attendance of beneficiaries.

General evidence on skills training programs emphasizes certain features that contribute to success. These include adaptation of training to the local context, provision of more than the specific skills training that is required by the people, and provision of other services to alleviate other constraints faced by the local population (The World Bank. 2013n). Evidence suggests that skills training programs increase the probability of employment, especially among the youth and women, by 6% to 12% (The World Bank. 2013n). In some cases, the impact is greater with an increase of 30% (The World Bank. 2013n). However, many programs are not significantly effective (The World Bank. 2013n). Additionally, business training without access to finance tends to show small results (Blattman and Annan, 2011). In general, returns to skills training programs tend to be lower than returns to financing programs (Blattman and Annan, 2011).

In addition to financing and training, mentoring and support services were considered to be extremely important by interviewees. However, the expensive nature of provision was a limiting factor. This was witnessed in the Youth Enterprise Development Fund program, which provided loans, business development services and product marketing for youth enterprises (The World Bank, 2013i). Although the program was successful in linking youth to markets and creating youth businesses, the costs were prohibitive (The World Bank, 2013i). Lack of awareness about the program among the beneficiaries was another inefficiency (The World Bank, 2013i). Similarly, the Swiss-South African Co-Operation Initiative, which provided training and business development services to youth in South Africa, was cost-ineffective (The World Bank, 2013e). Due to this, the program was experimenting with more financially sustainable interventions like market access, supply chain linkages etc. (The World Bank, 2013e).

Overall, both evaluation evidence and interviewees advocated for comprehensive programs over stand-alone interventions.

Despite the relatively new contribution of entrepreneurship programs to the array of labor market interventions, they seem to have a positive influence on business knowledge and practices (Cho and Honorati, 2013). Setting-up and growth of businesses and incomes are progressing, but far-reaching goals that require continued research and experimentation with innovative and comprehensive interventions befitting of the local context of the population and place to better target the African youth.

VIII. Policy Recommendations

Entrepreneurship promotion in Sub-Saharan Africa is a multidimensional endeavor. Not only is the region itself very diverse, but entrepreneurship has a vast scope. Consequently, the design and implementation of youth entrepreneurship programs needs to be general enough to reflect upon the potential of entrepreneurship as a career option, while at the same time being specific enough to tailor to the local

needs and context of the target group and region. Accordingly, I recommend the following policy alternatives in each of the three program areas of targeting, design, and implementation.

1. Recommendations for Program Targeting

1.A *Improve targeting of youth by conducting target group and market context assessments and involving local intermediaries.*

Target group and market context assessments must be conducted before designing youth entrepreneurship programs. Baseline surveys should be conducted with various local stakeholders to understand the demographic characteristics of youth including age, gender, socio-economic class, level of education or skills, culture, and other aspects like interests, needs, constraints, growth opportunities and capacities of youth in specific and the local community in general. The design of an entrepreneurship program must incorporate these characteristics and aspects to establish program criteria that encourage self-selection of beneficiaries. Additionally, a screening mechanism needs to be developed to target the program towards youth who not only have the interest, but also the potential for entrepreneurship. Local intermediaries and associations should be involved in conducting assessments to get a better understanding of the target group and the local entrepreneurial ecosystem. Their know-how should also be capitalized upon for identification, outreach and selection of beneficiaries.

1.B *Increase attendance and participation of youth by targeting higher-skilled youth and nascent youth enterprises, building accountability mechanisms, spreading awareness about the program, and offering incentives.*

To increase participation and attendance of youth, entrepreneurship programs should be targeted towards youth with a relatively higher level of skills in the form of prior vocational training or training in a trade. Further, nascent youth enterprises should be targeted to improve targeting of youth with potential. To improve attendance, programs should have an in-built accountability mechanism such that benefits conferred by a program should be made conditional on completion of a particular program component. For example, financing can be made contingent on completion of financial literacy training. Additionally, many beneficiaries are oblivious to the program due to lack of awareness. Thus, program implementers need to spread awareness about the program components to encourage participation as was done in the Venture Capital Trust Fund program in Ghana. Lastly, incentives like stipend, transport allowance, meal vouchers, monetary prizes, childcare facilities for young married women etc. should be offered to beneficiaries to compensate them for the opportunity cost of their time and to increase participation and attendance.

2. Recommendations for Program Design

2.A *Enhance program design by taking into consideration local context, realistic objectives, attitudinal shifts towards entrepreneurship, financial sustainability, and capacity of implementers.*

Program design must take into consideration the local context of the people and design interventions which are not only needed by youth, but also acceptable to them. This is especially important with respect to targeting young women as cultural traditions need to be respected while designing programs. Additionally, the objective(s) of the program needs to be set realistically and interventions need to be designed to achieve the specific objective(s). Interventions must also be designed to encourage changes in attitudes towards entrepreneurship among the youth. Further, entrepreneurship programs must be designed keeping in mind that entrepreneurship, unlike other labor market interventions, has a long gestation period and therefore financial sustainability of the program over the long-run must be considered. Lastly, programs need to be designed by weighing in the capacity of local or external partners to implement the interventions.

2.B *Promote comprehensive programs by including components like training and education, financing, mentoring and support, access to markets, and value chains.*

To resolve the multiple constraints faced by youth, comprehensive programs should be designed which include several, if not all, of the program components discussed below.

a. Entrepreneurial Education and Training

To resolve the problem of skills mismatch faced by the African youth, entrepreneurship education should be introduced in schools and colleges accompanied by opportunities for apprenticeship training. Further, the curriculum of the entrepreneurial education and training programs should be practical in nature. Interactive learning methods and work group techniques should be utilized to build life skills. Employer input should be used to tailor course content to the needs of the business world. In addition to restructuring the course content, entrepreneurship programs should have a 'train-the-trainer' component to constantly upgrade the skill level of the trainers with respect to training methodology and program curriculum. Additionally, youth should be provided with business skills, managerial skills, financial education and skills, life skills, vocational skills, and industry-specific training. However, youth running subsistence businesses should be provided basic business skills to improve business practices. The training period needs to be determined depending on target group needs, availability of funding, and the package of interventions being offered. Overall, training, although extremely important in increasing the probability of employment of youth and women, must be offered in combination with other interventions like financing, mentoring, or support.

b. Financing

To improve the accessibility of finance for youth entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa, a combination of financing instruments should be offered depending on the characteristics of the target group. Since African youth tend to have low incomes and lack any kind of collateral, cash or in-kind grants should be offered to them, especially to youth running subsistence businesses. To introduce accountability in the use of grants, transfers should be made on a periodic rather than one-time basis. Additionally, credit should be combined with savings or commitment products to resolve self-control and other problems faced by beneficiaries, especially young women, and to improve capital accumulation for business investment. With respect to microfinance, innovative components like grace periods, longer term lengths, reduced frequency of payments and in-kind financing products should be explored. Youth with small and medium enterprises, on the other hand, should be provided access to venture capital and other financial linkages. Lastly, financial skills training should be necessitated as a part of every financing intervention.

c. Mentoring and Support

Mentoring should be offered for youth entrepreneurship programs that are smaller in scale or more intensive in nature. To economize on the costs of mentoring, successful young entrepreneurs should be included to mentor youth about business practices and life skills. Youth entrepreneurs should also be offered support and follow-up services, especially after training, to help entrepreneurs make a business plan, start a business and to run it. Given the importance of mentoring and support, training should be offered for a relatively shorter time period and should be followed by a longer period of mentoring and support.

d. Access to Markets

Entrepreneurship programs should provide potential and growing youth entrepreneurs with linkages to markets by providing them access to supply chain intermediaries or customer segments that

have demand for their products. Additionally, programs should educate youth about the different types of markets, customer needs, input providers, and product demand.

e. Value Chains

Value chains frameworks should be incorporated in entrepreneurship programs such that youth entrepreneurs should be linked to cooperatives, market systems, buyers, financial service providers, and other intermediaries along the value chain. This can be done by greater involvement of the private sector in promoting youth entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship programs targeted towards growing youth entrepreneurs or youth involved in small and medium enterprises should also be designed to incorporate youth running smaller businesses by offering incentives to the growing enterprises to source inputs from the smaller businesses. Thus, programs should be designed to strengthen the entire market system.

3. Recommendations for Program Implementation

3.A *Improve implementation by involving, training and building capacity of local implementation partners.*

To improve the implementation of youth entrepreneurship programs, programs must be delivered by taking into consideration the local context including economic, socio-cultural and political factors like ability of women to participate, ability of youth to pay for services, opportunity cost of participation etc. To cater programs to the local environment, partnerships should be formed with local intermediaries and stakeholders to target beneficiaries who need assistance and adapt interventions accordingly. A local leader must be chosen by implementers with the assistance of the local community to motivate people to participate as well as to help implement the program. The program implementers must also develop an exit strategy. Subsequently, to sustain the program in the long run, they must train, support, and build capacity of the local partners.

3.B *Improve implementation by incorporating monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.*

To improve the implementation of youth entrepreneurship programs, continuous evaluation mechanisms should be in-built into program design. A results-tracking system can be used to keep the program on track through constant alterations to maximize impact. Further, mid-terms evaluations should be conducted of individual program components, combinations of components and the entire program to understand the interaction effects. Additionally, comparative evaluations should be encouraged of different types of program components as well as different programs. Furthermore, pilots of new interventions should be evaluated before scaling. Lastly, given the importance of training and financing interventions in entrepreneurship programs, evaluations of different types of training and financing interventions, especially training with finance and training without finance, should be conducted depending upon the availability of funding. Apart from conducting evaluations, a database of entrepreneurship programs with details about the successes and failures for different target groups and regions should be created to guide program designers and implementers. Such evaluations and databases can be used to improve the design and implementation of ongoing and future programs.

Finally, all these recommendations have to be justified on the basis of the incremental costs and benefits of each change and recommendation, as more evidence and ex-post evaluation results are obtained in the near future.

IX. Limitations

Although, this study produced significant results for improving the design and implementation of

youth entrepreneurship programs, certain methodological limitations preclude further extrapolation. The field of youth entrepreneurship would benefit from continued and more expansive research on best practices and more evidence based ex-post cost benefit and cost effectiveness analyses of youth entrepreneurship programs. I am confident that with continued research in improving practices, these programs will be more effective in encouraging youth entrepreneurship.

X. Conclusion

On the whole, even though entrepreneurship is not yet considered to be as effective for target groups who are poor and vulnerable and run subsistence enterprises, it has vast future potential for them. By embedding entrepreneurship in the educational curriculum of schools and universities, youth in training can be geared with the requisite basic skills that are needed to advance them into entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship for the poor and vulnerable can subsequently be promoted by capitalizing on the services and knowledge of youth who have already been trained or those who have gained experience in running enterprises. In a region like Sub-Saharan Africa where wage-employment is scarce, entrepreneurship offers a window of opportunity for the increasingly expanding youth population. In the long run, program implementers might consider linking to the labor ministries in the country of operation to remove barriers to 'hire and fire'. Since, the latter constitutes one of the key impediments to employment generation; this shall be a crucial policy to encourage labor market flexibility and job creation on a larger level. Continuous learning and experimentation on holistic approaches, offers some hope for an increasing role of youth entrepreneurship for the region to help solve the unemployment problem.

At present, neither the public nor the private sector in Africa are able to create nearly enough jobs for youth, let alone the region's entire population. Consequently, entrepreneurship is the only alternative. However, the quality of entrepreneurship with respect to business practices, incomes, and earning potential needs to be improved to turn it into a dynamic force. In the next stage of entrepreneurship, however, it will stimulate much larger employment growth. In general, structural reforms in Sub-Saharan Africa, especially pertaining to encouraging transparency, efficiency and innovation in the business environment, can help expand the rate of return of programs and interventions such as the ones discussed in this paper. However, changes in the business environment, especially stimulating innovation, is partly a function of the cultural mindsets and attitudes towards entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs need to be viewed in a positive light by society. Consequently, creating a spirit of entrepreneurship within African society will be crucial to unleashing its potential.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Details of Ex-Post Evaluation Studies of Entrepreneurship Programs

In Uganda, the North Ugandan Social Action Fund's (NUSAF) - Youth Opportunities Program (YOP) provided young adults between the ages of 16 and 35 with grants of $382 per group member for purchasing skills training and start-up toolkits (Blattman et al., 2013). Government screening of group proposals was a key element of the process of providing grants (Blattman et al., 2013). The impact evaluation results indicated that nearly 80% of the people who received benefits grew business assets (The World Bank, 2013c). By the fourth year of operations, the program increased participants' business assets, work hours and earnings by 57%, 17% and 38% respectively (Blattman et al., 2013). The program results represented annual real economic returns of nearly 35%. Additionally, the program also helped participants move to non-agricultural sectors, formalize businesses, pay taxes, and hire employees (Blattman et al., 2013). Another significant achievement was that one-third of the program participants were women and after four years, their incomes increased by 73% over the non-participants (Blattman et al., 2013). These results led to the policy supposition that "increasing access to credit and capital could stimulate employment growth in rural Africa" (The World Bank, 2013c). The program also suggested that cash grants could possibly have the largest impact on new employment by "targeting poor young adults with ability and initiative, especially where local economies are below steady state, credit is scarce, and social norms do not stifle new enterprise" (Blattman et al., 2013). The authors further claimed that "there are also a variety of settings that resemble Uganda in key respects. It sits at roughly the median level of development in sub-Saharan Africa" (Blattman et al., 2013). Thus, access to finance is a constraint that is common to many African countries.

Another program in Uganda, the Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents (ELA) program, provided adolescent girls life skills training to help them cope with risky reproductive behaviors and reduce the risk of HIV (Bandiera et al., 2012). In addition, the program also provided these girls with vocational training to help them set-up and operate small-scale enterprises (Bandiera et al., 2012). The program was not only successful in changing sexual behaviors, but it also increased the likelihood of girls participating in income generating activities, mostly self-employment activities, by 35% (Bandiera et al., 2012). The monetary benefits that accrued to the participating girls were far greater than the cost incurred per participant, making the program worthwhile (Bandiera et al., 2012). The program highlighted the greater success of combined interventions or comprehensive programs over stand–alone interventions in improving risky behaviors and labor market outcomes for adolescent girls (Bandiera et al., 2012). This was also seen in another program which provided a monthly cash transfer of $10 to adolescent girls in Malawi conditional on school attendance (Bandiera et al., 2012). Due to the low-cost and scalable nature of such an intervention, it is especially relevant for targeting the growing youth population in many developing countries (Bandiera et al., 2012).

Additionally, the Economic Empowerment of Adolescent Girls and Young Women (EPAG) project provided young Liberian women with 6 months of business development skills, life skills and job skills training followed by another 6 months of job placement support for both wage employment and self-employment (The World Bank, 2013n). The program increased the employment and earnings of participants by 47% and 80% respectively relative to non-participants (Adoho et al., 2013). According to mid-term results, the average weekly income of participants increased by 115% compared to non-participants (The World Bank, 2013n). The program had a larger impact on women with higher education and income levels (Adoho et al., 2013). Further, the program helped women save significantly more such that the savings of program participants were USD 35 more than that of non-participants (Adoho et al., 2013). Overall, participants who underwent business development training were more likely to start their own enterprises (Adoho et al., 2013). Further, in terms of cost-effectiveness, the participants that underwent business skills training could be expected to reap equal value of economic returns within 2 years (Adoho et

al., 2013). The positive results of the pilot program in Liberia created grounds for replication in other low-income countries (Adoho et al., 2013). Subsequently, the program was piloted in 7 other countries including Rwanda, South Sudan, Nepal, Afghanistan, Haiti, Jordan, and Lao PDR, each being tailored to the local context of the country (Adoho et al., 2013). Overall, the EPAG program was considered an important model to improve the livelihoods of women and African youth (Adoho et al., 2013).

In Ghana, the Venture Capital Trust Fund (VCTF) provided low-cost credit to SMEs, seed capital to start-ups, and organized entrepreneurship development and capacity building programs (The World Bank, 2013f). The fund created an estimated 1,400 jobs in participating communities and farmer-based organizations in 2010 (The World Bank, 2013f). During the same year, gross income to farmers was estimated at GH₵[11] 7.4 million (The World Bank, 2013f). The fund also generated 3,500 direct jobs for the farming communities on an annual basis. Additionally, the program integrated nearly 8,000 smallholder farmers into the global supply chain of local industries (The World Bank, 2013f). As of 2013, the Fund's portfolio investments were valued at US$ 57 million, highlighting huge financing potential (The World Bank, 2013f). VCTF helped SMEs to reach a larger market; the customer base of VCTF's 39 targeted portfolio companies increased from 14,080 to 29,268 due to the investment (The World Bank, 2013f). Further, the tax revenues from these companies increased from GH₵ 264,244 per annum before the venture capital investments to GH₵548,836 per annum after the investments (The World Bank, 2013f). VCTF was successful in its efforts not only because it organized training programs with practitioners like management consultants and top-tier institutions to provide relevant skills, but also because it took extensive tours to raise awareness among the SMEs about its services and the advantages of venture capital finance (The World Bank, 2013f).

Various randomized field experiments also showed positive results of entrepreneurial interventions. One such randomized control experiment was conducted with the cooperation of a microfinance institution in Malawi, which offered Malawian smallholder cash crop farmers two types of savings treatments, the first being "ordinary" accounts and the second being a combination of ordinary and "commitment" accounts (Brune et al., 2011). While an "ordinary" account was a formal savings account with "standard features", a "commitment" account "allowed customers to restrict access to their own funds until a future date of their choosing" (Brune et al., 2011). The experiment also assigned farmers to a control group which was not offered any assistance in opening savings accounts of either type (Brune et al., 2011). Farmers in all the groups were provided a financial education session to isolate the effect of providing the savings accounts (Brune et al., 2011). The commitment savings accounts had a positive impact on the deposits and withdrawals prior to the planting season (Brune et al., 2011). Further, the land under cultivation, agricultural input use in planting, crop output in subsequent harvest, and household expenditures for farmers with commitment accounts increased by 9.8%, 26.2%, 22.0%, and 17.4% respectively over the control group (Brune et al., 2011). The impacts for farmers with ordinary savings accounts were small and statistically insignificant (Brune et al., 2011). The commitment account helped individuals cope with "other-control" problems rather than "self-control" problems as these accounts 'may have provided an excuse to turn down requests for assistance from the social network by *claiming* that their savings were inaccessible" (Brune et al., 2011). Moreover, wealthier farmers benefited more from commitment savings accounts as they were more likely to be pressured by their social networks (Brune et al., 2011). The results of the experiment, therefore, indicated that offering commitment savings accounts could be a useful and economical way of encouraging savings and improving farm incomes (Brune et al., 2011). According to the authors, such an intervention would have a benefit to cost ratio of 3.86 which would translate into net benefits that after one year of operation would be "three times larger than the estimated annual benefit of a $100 grant to male-operated small businesses in Sri Lanka and Ghana" (Brune et al., 2011). Thus, a commitment savings account can be very beneficial for encouraging capital accumulation and enterprise growth.

[11] GH₵= Ghana Cedi, 1 USD = 2.17 GH₵ as on September 30, 2013

Another field experiment in rural Kenya offered poor daily income earners with interest-free formal savings accounts in the local village bank (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). These accounts had sizeable withdrawal fees which acted as a negative interest rate (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). The intervention also offered the choice of opening an account free of cost (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). The experiment showed a positive impact of the savings account on business investment for females (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). However, the intervention did not show any effect for males (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). The intervention caused an increase in daily productive investment of approximately 108 Kenyan Shillings (US $1.6) (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). This translated into a 40% rise in average investment 4-6 months post-account opening (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). Moreover, 6 months after opening an account, private expenditures and average daily food expenditures of women were 37 to 44% higher and 14 to 29% higher than women without accounts respectively (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). These higher investment levels indicated higher incomes. Thus, the negative de-facto interest rate of formal savings accounts offered a higher overall return than informal savings which have a non-negative interest rate (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). This is because even though the account was not a commitment device, it worked like a commitment mechanism by discouraging frequent withdrawals on account of the high withdrawal fees and the limited hours of operation of the bank (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). Women face constraints in the form of present-biased self-control problems, monetary demands from family or social networks, health shocks etc. that prevent them from saving effectively (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). Thus, these accounts helped women to save up "lumpy" investments for business (Dupas and Robinson, 2009). The effectiveness of saving opportunities has not only been witnessed in the case of Sub-Saharan Africa, but experimental evidence from the Philippines and the United States also upholds its usefulness (Dupas and Robinson, 2009).

An alternative randomized experiment in Ghana provided cash and in-kind grants to microenterprises in urban Ghana (Fafchamps et al., 2011). While the in-kind grants were effective for both men and women, for women whose initial profit levels were below the median level, the profitability remained almost the same (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Thus for female-run subsistence businesses, even in-kind grants were ineffective indicating that women required more than capital to run subsistence enterprises (Fafchamps et al., 2011). Similar results have also been witnessed in Sri Lanka. Additionally, only in-kind grants had an impact on business profits of female-owned enterprises (Fafchamps et al., 2011). For men, however, in-kind grants were much more effective than cash (Fafchamps et al., 2011). The difference in impacts of cash and in-kind grants was attributed to the self-control issues of beneficiaries caused on account of "time-inconsistent preferences, high discount rates, or lack of ability to save" (Fafchamps et al., 2011). As a result, the authors recommended that microfinance organizations may need to offer more in-kind financing products to encourage enterprise development (Fafchamps et al., 2011).

At variance with the positive impact figures of the above programs, other programs showed mixed results.

In Kenya, impact figures for the Youth Enterprise Development Fund (YEDF), which provided loans, business development services and product marketing for youth enterprises, revealed that the program created 372 new businesses, thereby impacting 1158 individuals in the community (The World Bank, 2013i). The cost of the program was estimated at KES 6.5 billion (approximately $74.8 million) in 2012 (The World Bank, 2013i). The intervention trained more than 1,200 young people to start, operate, and manage business enterprises within a span of 7 years (The World Bank, 2013i). However, the high costs of providing business development and support services, operational overheads, and market access over and above the cost of providing credit proved to be challenging (The World Bank, 2013i). Further, the absence of formal structures for disbursement and repayment of loans in many areas worked against the youth (The World Bank, 2013i). Lastly, the lack of awareness among the youth about the Fund's existence and their inability to access its services posed another challenge (The World Bank, 2013i). Despite this, the

project was not only successful in providing enterprise funding and entrepreneurship training to youth, but also in linking youth to markets and export trade businesses (The World Bank, 2013i).

Another program in Uganda, Program for the Promotion of Children and Youth (PCY), which provided local skills in development, entrepreneurship, and self-employment to Ugandan youth, revealed that incomes of participants were about 26% higher than those of non-participants (The World Bank, 2013k). Further, 26.6% and 43% of the youth promoters claimed an average weekly income below UGX[12] 4000 and above UGX 8000 respectively (The World Bank, 2013k). By contrast, 50.1% and 29.6% of the respondents amongst the non-beneficiaries reported an average weekly income below UGX 4000 and above UGX 8000 respectively (The World Bank, 2013k). Although, the impact estimate suggested a significant impact of the program on the incomes of participants at an estimated cost of USD $6 million, the evaluators were wary of the influence of youth promoters' personal attributes in shaping program outcomes (The World Bank, 2013k).

A different randomized field experiment conducted in collaboration with the Promotion of Rural Initiatives and Development Enterprise (PRIDE), Tanzania's largest microfinance institution, introduced business training and grants to address human and capital constraints faced by poor micro-entrepreneurs (Berge et al., 2011). The business trainings were offered in 21 sessions which were followed by a dissemination of business grants of 100 000 TZS[13] (approximately $61) per participant (Berge et al., 2011). With respect to program impact, the business training improved business knowledge and encouraged adoption of better business practices related to record-keeping, marketing, customer relations, quality of employees etc. (Berge et al., 2011). Business training also contributed to a 20-30% rise in sales of male enterprises (Berge et al., 2011). For female businesses, however, although training improved business knowledge, ability to form business plans, and mind sets related to self-confidence; it did not improve the business outcomes of female businesses (Berge et al., 2011). Business grants, on the other hand, completely failed to have any impact on male or female enterprises (Berge et al., 2011). The program showed a higher impact on male businesses as male beneficiaries who were more likely to benefit or who were more promising were more likely to participate and stay through the course (Berge et al., 2011). For females, however, a lower willingness to compete acted as an internal constraint (Berge et al., 2011). They also faced external constraints due to the higher household responsibilities, proximity of businesses in or close to homes, and lesser involvement and influence in household as well as business decisions (Berge et al., 2011). Due to these constraints, business training did not impact business practices or outcomes of females (Berge et al., 2011). Consistent with this outcome, several other studies have concluded that "promoting business development is more challenging among female entrepreneurs than among male entrepreneurs" (Berge et al., 2011). However, despite the positive attributes of training on improved business knowledge and practices, the profit margins remained the same for both male and female enterprises (Berge et al., 2011). Wider research has also suggested the ineffectiveness of business training in affecting business profits and sales (Berge et al., 2011).

The Malawi Apprenticeship Program provided vocational and entrepreneurship training to Malawian youth by placing them as apprentices under master craftsmen involved in different trades in urban areas (Cho et al., 2013). The training lasted an average of 3 months and provided a small stipend to trainees for meals, transportation and accommodation (Cho et al., 2013). The program contributed to improved skills, better well-being and continued investment in training and human capital development for men (Cho et al., 2013). Women, on the other hand, had lower levels of skills development as compared to men, decreased earnings-related activities, and reduced savings (Cho et al., 2013). The worse outcomes for women were due to the various constraints faced by them including higher likeliness to dropout due to illness or injury, lower levels of education at baseline, family obligations, getting married, training

[12] UGX = Ugandan Shilling, 1 UGX = 0.00039 USD as on September 30, 2013
[13] TZS - Tanzanian Shilling, 1 Tanzanian Shilling = 0.00061 US Dollar as on 5 April, 2014

expenses, and distance from training facility (Cho et al., 2013). Due to these constraints, men had a higher attendance rate as compared to women and were three times more likely to be hired by a master-craftsman post training (Cho et al., 2013). Overall, the program had a huge opportunity cost for participants since 30% of the training hours were drawn from wage or self-employment hours (Cho et al., 2013). Moreover, participation involved other expenses. Due to the substantial opportunity costs of such programs, apprenticeship programs are mostly ineffective despite their common occurrence in Sub-Saharan Africa (Cho et al., 2013).

With respect to experimental evaluations, a randomized experiment conducted in Ghana provided some evidence for a management training program for micro and small entrepreneurs in an industrial cluster (Mano et al., 2011). The training was provided for 3 weeks on subjects of entrepreneurship, business planning, marketing, production and quality management, record keeping, and costing (Mano et al., 2011). The training program increased the percentage of participants adopting recommended practices by 50% (Mano et al., 2011). The private benefit of training was 18 times the training cost in the first year. However, the impacts on productivity were uncertain (Mano et al., 2011).

Another randomized experiment offered Malawian farmers insurance to guard against the rainfall risk which was the major source of production risk (Gine and Yang, 2009). As part of the experiment, farmers were offered a choice between a credit package to buy seeds and another credit package which included the same credit but also required farmers to buy a fairly-priced weather insurance policy which "partially or fully forgave the loan in the event of poor rainfall" (Gine and Yang, 2009). Despite rainfall being a major risk impacting production, the take-up of the insured loan was 13 percentage points lower (Gine and Yang, 2009). The authors suggested that this might be due to the "implicit insurance from the limited liability clause in the loan contract" (Gine and Yang, 2009). However, the take-up of the insured loan was higher among farmers with higher education, income or wealth levels (Gine and Yang, 2009). This may have been because farmers with these characteristics were more likely to have a higher income in the low-state to begin with due to adoption of farming practices that reduced the rainfall risk. Risk averse farmers were, in general, less likely to take-up the uninsured loan (Gine and Yang, 2009). The study analyzed the buyer's demand for insurance. The authors, however, believed, that the lenders of loans were more likely to be in favor of increasing accessing to credit if the latter was coupled with insurance products like weather insurance to reduce the risk of default (Gine and Yang, 2009).

On the less impactful side, the Adolescent Development Program (ADP), which provided social, financial and life skills training along with asset transfers to Ugandan girls between the ages of 14 and 20 (The World Bank, 2013l), was not promising. The impact evaluation results of the program indicated that girls who were more likely to benefit from an entrepreneurship program were more likely to participate (Bandiera et al., 2009). Thus, the outcomes achieved were more likely due to a self-selection bias on the part of participants rather than program success.

Similarly, the Swiss-South African Co-Operation Initiative (SSACI) in South Africa, although productive, was not cost effective. Although the program provided start-up training for young entrepreneurs and business development services to individual enterprises, from mid-2008 onwards, SSACI moved away from its unsustainable approach (The World Bank, 2013e). Instead, the program has been considering new approaches like promotion of new industries, markets, or supply chains to development enterprises (The World Bank, 2013e).

The NGO Landmine Action Program in Liberia was another program with insignificant impact. The program, which provided skills training and startup packages to high-risk youth, led to inconsequential income changes between program participants and non-participants (The World Bank, 2013m). While the program helped create sustainable and profitable agricultural enterprises, the revenue and employment generated by these enterprises remained minimal (Blattman and Annan, 2011). Lack of access to markets,

inputs and capital; the risky nature of agriculture, and the long gestation periods were cited as major constraints to pursuing agriculture successfully. On the contrary, gold prices rose during the program period which further fueled illicit mining (Blattman and Annan, 2011). The combination of unprofitable agriculture on the one hand and lucrative mining on the other led to program failure.

Appendix B. Qualitative Interview Instrument for Experts

Introduction

Thank you for taking the time to speak with me today. My name is Sukanya Garg. I'm a graduate student conducting interviews to inform a research project currently being undertaken by the World Bank's Social Protection and Labor unit on "*Best Practices in the design and implementation of entrepreneurship and self-employment programs?"* By entrepreneurship programs we mean interventions that aim to provide opportunities to set up or grow businesses- for beneficiaries to be able to work as the self-employed and small scale entrepreneurs. They may include provision of training, financing, mentoring, advisory services, and business development services, for example. Our focus is the policy instruments to support the livelihoods of the poor and vulnerable through entrepreneurship programs rather than identifying and supporting high performing entrepreneurs, so called gazelles. The goal of the project is to inform new program design and improve the performance of entrepreneurship programs.

The objective of our in-depth interview with experts in the area of entrepreneurship is to (i) understand the constraints and challenges in designing and implementing entrepreneurship programs and (ii) draw lessons for future design and implementation of such programs. Our discussion will last about an hour and aims to garner some of the knowledge you have gained in years of entrepreneurship programs.

Do you have any questions? Okay, let's begin.

Interview Guide

Name:
Organization:
Position:

Warm-up Question

1. Please describe your career in entrepreneurship and self-employment programs highlighting:
    a. how long you've worked in this area
    b. any geographic concentration
    c. target groups worked with
    d. other relevant major components of your career?

Module 1: Entrepreneurship Program Objectives and Constraints

2. How effective do you think Entrepreneurship Programs are in achieving the goal of improving incomes, livelihoods, and well-being of the very poor and vulnerable?

3. What in your opinion are the main constraints faced by entrepreneurs in their (potential) entrepreneurial activity? Please differentiate where you see appropriate (youth v general, men v women, rural v urban, regions of the world etc.).

4. What are the most effective methods or instruments to identify, quantify, and prioritize addressing these constraints?

5. To what extent are current entrepreneurship programs' objectives aligned with the above mentioned constraints and meeting the potential to support and encourage self-employment and entrepreneurship?

6. What are the major achievements in entrepreneurship programming to date?

7. What are the major weaknesses of current entrepreneurship programs, in your view?

Module 2: Defining Target Group and Selection

8. What are the biggest challenges in targeting certain groups for entrepreneurship programs?

9. What mechanisms do you recommend to define target group for entrepreneurship programs?

   9.1 What are the main principles – general to labor market programs as well as specific ones to entrepreneurship programs?

Module 3: Program Components

10. Describe major program components necessary for a successful entrepreneurship program.

11. What are the most important considerations in selecting components and designing the programs?

12. What are the constraints/difficulties faced in program implementation?

13. How do you recommend addressing these constraints/difficulties?

Module 4: Stakeholders' General Experience

14. How would you assess the effectiveness/appropriateness of entrepreneurship programs compared with other active labor market policies in improving jobs and earnings opportunities?

15. What in your view are some of the best practices in entrepreneurship programs?

16. What approaches/interventions seem to be ineffective and why?

17. What aspects of entrepreneurship programs are missing or are implemented with little result?

18. What are the priority areas/components of entrepreneurship programming that implementers would most benefit from having more rigorous testing and impact evaluation?

Module 5: Closing Question

19. After reflecting on the entire subject addressed in this interview, I'd like to ask again, how effective do you think Entrepreneurship Programs are in achieving the goal of improving incomes, livelihoods, and well-being of the very poor and vulnerable?

20. Do you have any additional thoughts about youth employment and entrepreneurship that you would like to share?

Before we close, I wanted to ask you a few questions related to your demographic profile.

I really appreciate you taking the time to speak to me. Our conversation was very informative, and your responses will be extremely helpful in informing my project. If you think of any comments you would like to add to today's discussion, you can reach me via email at sg224@duke.edu. Thank you.

Demographic Questionnaire:

- Age
- Education level
- Country of Origin
- Country(s) of operation
- Years of Experience

Appendix C. Description of Codes used for Analysis

Component	Code to be used for analysis of Question 10 of the interview instrument: Parent code for the different types of components only to be used for intra-comparison of the different types of components with each other and not comparison with any other codes.
Training-Education	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: in-classroom or out-of-classroom education or training in any of the following skills: life/soft skills education or training (communication, leadership, negotiation, presentation etc.), vocational education or training, business skills education or training (management, marketing, customer identification, production/service delivery, sales, human resources), general skills education or training, financing skills education or training (accounting, budgeting, financing and capital structure), entrepreneurship skills education or training, apprenticeships, training in a craft or a trade, ICT training etc.
Financing	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: cash grants, in-kind grants, loans, savings , commitment devices for savings, credit, venture capital, micro-credit/finance, table-banking, banking, seed capital, SME finance, linkages to finance etc.
Mentoring	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: follow up advice in the process of business operations
Support	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: (all follow-up activities except mentoring) business development services, follow-up, advisory and extension services, wrap-around services, handholding services, product marketing, business marketing, networking etc.
Markets	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: access to markets, producers, suppliers, buyers, businesses or any other supply chain components or market linkages etc.
Value Chains	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations linked to: the value chains approach or market system perspective
Technology	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: technological interventions like mobile usage, automation etc.
Info-Idea	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: provision of information/ideas about markets, jobs, inputs etc.
Other	component characteristics, principles, constraints, challenges, weaknesses, achievements, effectiveness, best practices, objectives, design, implementation, evaluation, or recommendations pertaining to: infrastructure (power/energy, transport, telecom), incentives (child care, transport allowance), insurance, capacity building, building entrepreneurship ecosystem, pricing system for any intervention, study and meet successful entrepreneurs, policy regulations, resources, micro-franchising system, anti-Gender Based Violence(GBV) measures, interventions to help women break out of stereotypical trades, business plan competition etc.
Target groups	Refers to all the population segments an entrepreneurship program(s) is/are directed towards including youth, women, men, different types of businesses, different age groups etc.
Youth	Refers to young people usually defined as those in the age group of 15-24 years

Women	Refers to females
Poor-Subsistence	Refers to the population segments with low-income, those who are poor, risk-prone or vulnerable, those involved in agriculture, or those involved in or aspiring to be involved in small enterprises or subsistence businesses
Constraints	Refers to all the constraints faced by entrepreneurs in their potential/present entrepreneurial activity and methods or instruments to identify, quantify, and prioritize addressing these constraints. This does not include targeting challenges or implementation constraints.
Objectives	Refers to the alignment of the purpose of an entrepreneurship program(s) with its actual design and implementation or the various objectives and interventions a program should encompass
Targeting	Refers to the characteristics, results, achievements, challenges, weaknesses, recommendations or stakeholders of the process of directing any component/intervention of an entrepreneurship program(s) towards the various target groups, anticipated program participants or local population
Implementation	Refers to the characteristics, results, achievements, challenges, weaknesses, recommendations or stakeholders of the process of executing the interventions/components of an entrepreneurship program(s)
Evaluation	Refers to types of evaluations, program impact/effectiveness evidence, monitoring/supervision/tracking of programs, and priority areas/components that have been recommended by experts to be tested or evaluated
Achievements	Refers to interventions/components of an entrepreneurship program(s) that have/seem to have/can have some success in promoting entrepreneurship including best practices and potential areas of interest
Weaknesses	Refers to interventions/components of an entrepreneurship program(s) that have failed, are ineffective, or have not had much success in promoting entrepreneurship
Program Effectiveness	Refers to the performance assessment of an entrepreneurship program(s) and its components individually, in totality, or in comparison with other active labor market programs

Appendix D. List of Interviewees

S. No.	Interviewee Name	Organization	Position	Age	Education Level	Country of Origin	Country(s)of Operation	Years of Experience	Date and Duration of Interview
1.	Christie Scott	International Youth Foundation	Program Director, Middle East and North Africa Region	47	Bachelors and work on Masters	USA	Kenya, Uganda, South Africa, Senegal, Sri Lanka, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Egypt, Palestine, Jordan, Kyrgyzstan, India, Tajikistan, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Indonesia, Singapore, China, Russia, South Korea, Guatemala, Bolivia, Ecuador, USA	25	19-Jan, 80 minutes
2.	David McKenzie	The World Bank	Lead Economist, Development Research Group, Finance and Private Sector Development Unit	39	PHD	New Zealand	USA, Mexico, Sri Lanka, Latin America, Middle East, throughout the world	13	28-Jan, 47 minutes
3.	Hayden Aaronson	ACDI VOCA	Technical Director, Enterprise Development	37	Masters	USA	USA, Eastern Europe, Africa	15	7-Feb, 55 minutes
4.	Jealous Chirove	ILO, Youth Entrepreneurs-hip Facility (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania) and Women's Entrepreneurs-hip Development and Economic Empowerment (WEDEE)	Chief Technical Advisor	42	Masters	Zimbabwe	Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Liberia, Zambia, Malawi, Sri Lanka	15	1-Feb, 75 minutes
5.	La Vonn Schlegel	Indiana University School of International Business	Director	52	MBA	USA	Myanmar, Barbados, Palestinian territories, Kenya, Malaysia, Russia, Ghana, Middle East, North Africa except Libya, Jordan, Afghanistan and Pakistan, Europe	28	4-Feb, 60 minutes
6.	Laura Rana	Youth Business International	Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning Manager	29	Masters	UK	Bangladesh, India, Nepal, UK, Kenya	6	6-Feb, 45 minutes
7.	Leonardo Iacovone	The World Bank	Senior Economist of the Innovation, Technology and Entrepreneurship Global Practice	38	PHD	Italy	Africa and Latin America	10	6-Feb, 50 minutes
8.	Magnus Lofstrom	Public Policy Institute of California	Research Fellow	47	PHD	Sweden	USA	15	23-Jan, 60 minutes
9.	Markus Pilgrim	ILO	Manager, Small Enterprises Unit ,Enterprises Department	52	PHD	Germany	Global	25	10-Feb, 50 minutes
10.	Peter Bamkole	Enterprise Development Centre, Pan-African University	Director	52	Masters	Nigeria	Sub-Saharan Africa, more in Nigeria	32	31-Jan, 4-Feb, 130 minutes
11.	Shubha Chakravarthy	The World Bank	Economist	36	PHD	USA	Liberia, Rwanda, South Sudan, Nepal, Afghanistan	10	11-Feb, 65 minutes